> *"...we work hard and we try*
> *and our teachers care, but*
> *we are not treated fairly.*
> *Our school is poor. If this*
> *Commission cares, please*
> *make something happen..."*
>
> *—Hispanic student*

R5300-3.2

"Make Something Happen"

Hispanics and Urban High School Reform
Volume II

National Commission on
Secondary Education For Hispanics

Hispanic Policy Development Project

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The editors invite readers to submit their comments and suggestions. Every communication will be read by the editors, and each will be given careful attention although it will not be possible to send a personal reply to each letter. Please send your observations to—

Make Something Happen
Editorial Office
Hispanic Policy Development Project
1001 Connecticut Avenue NW—Suite 310
Washington, D.C. 20036

The fundamental finding of the *National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics* is that a shocking proportion of this generation of Hispanic young people is being wasted. Wasted because their educational needs are neither understood nor met, their high aspirations unrecognized, their promising potential stunted.

The dropout rates and low school achievement levels of a staggering number of Hispanic high school students have a direct, devastating effect on their communities. The damage inflicted on young Hispanics today threatens society tomorrow.

By the year 2000, in key areas of this nation, the majority population will be Hispanic. In these areas, the future of arts, sciences, and government, the prosperity of business enterprises, and the social health of entire communities will depend mainly on Hispanics: on their participation in community affairs and in the economy, and on their ability to support themselves and their families. Logic and common sense argue that society must make determined efforts to halt and reverse the wasting of generations of young Hispanics.

The National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics concentrated its attention on inner-city public schools. We present in this report a series of recommendations designed to assist communities and educators in preparing young Hispanics for leadership and full participation in the nation's future. Curriculum prescriptions are designed to provide Hispanics with skills they will use throughout their lives, and with an education that will challenge and fulfill their intellectual and cultural potential.

The recommendations also suggest measures to alleviate the high level of stress which many inner-city children experience. Hispanic students need—and realize that they need—relationships with caring adults who can give them insightful guidance. These recommendations recognize this need and recognize as well the circumstances which impel so many young Hispanics into the world of work long before their formal education has been completed. The Commission's recommendations underscore the need to prepare Hispanics for lifelong learning and to involve Hispanic parents in the education of their children.

The Commission recommends language instruction that will give Hispanic students full command of English. At the same time, the Commission recommends that the Hispanic students' ability to use the Spanish language be encouraged and developed. This ability is a rich resource, both for the individual and for the nation; Spanish speaking citizens are important to this nation's relationships within the Western Hemisphere, and the ability to speak Spanish should be encouraged more generally throughout our educational system.

We urge policymakers to consider the recommendations of the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics to ensure that the national quest for excellence leaves no group behind. In order for excellence to have meaning, it must become a reality **for all young Americans.**

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Co-Chair

Paul N. Ylvisaker
Co-Chair

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National Commission on Secondary Schooling For Hispanics

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Mrs. Dorothy Shields
Director of Education, AFL-CIO

The Commission expresses its deep appreciation to HPDP staff members Mildred Garcia Ruybali and Carmen Ramos and to Commission staff members Martha Galindo and Toni Breiter, who made valuable contributions to the preparation of this report. We are especially indebted to Siobhan Oppenheimer-Nicolau and Rafael Valdivieso, who drafted the report, and to Stina Santiestevan, who edited the report and oversaw its production. We express our gratitude to David Vidal, who directed the Commission's work during the site visit phase, and to the following individuals who read the draft report: Michael Borrero, Ernest L. Boyer, Guarioné M. Díaz, William Díaz, Erwin Flaxman, Herman Gallegos, Harold Howe, William Marcussen, Edward Meade, Eduardo Padrón, Joaquin Otero, Scott D. Thomson, Michael Usdan, Gary Walker, and Raúl Yzaguirre.

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*Deceased—May 16, 1984

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Foreword

This is Volume II of *Make Something Happen*, the report of the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics. It contains demographic profiles of Hispanics, statistical tables and graphics, and a variety of essays and reports that support and complement the Commission's findings and recommendations in Volume I. We have selected materials with an eye for informative, stimulating readings that can aid in designing school and work programs for Hispanic youth. Policymakers, business leaders, community and parent leaders, analysts and researchers can all benefit from these readings.

While we did not include here any material from the transcripts of the Commission's proceedings, the transcripts are available at the Washington, D.C., office of the Hispanic Policy Development Project (HPDP). We are grateful to Susan Abdo and Rosemarie Pilachowski for analyzing and indexing the transcripts and thereby making them more accessible to researchers and others who might want to study them. Abdo and Pilachowski are doctoral students at Syracuse University who interned with HPDP during the 1984 summer.

The volume is divided into three sections, each preceded by a short introduction describing its contents.

Rafael Valdivieso
Martha Galindo
Editors
Volume II

Section One: Hispanic Profiles

Section One: Hispanic Profiles

This section contains a demographic profile of U.S. Hispanics as well as profiles of the subgroups—Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and others—who constitute the Hispanic population of the United States.

The first subsection presents a comparative analysis of the U.S. Hispanic population, the total U.S. population, and the White and Black populations. It documents the relative size and growth of the Hispanic population nationally, contains data on the use of the Spanish language, and provides inter-group comparisons of key indicators: age and sex distributions, income, employment, and education.

Hispanic Profiles compares the four major segments of the U.S. Hispanic population: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and Other Hispanics. It documents the relative size and growth of each subgroup, and compares them by the basic indicators: age and sex, income and employment.

The final four subsections discuss the basic characteristics of each of the four major Hispanic subgroups. Each subsection contains a map showing where that subgroup is most concentrated on the U.S. mainland, a statistical summary of the group, and a brief analysis of its socioeconomic characteristics.

Most of the statistical data included are from the 1980 Census of Population. Where indicated, population projections from the Census data have been made to 1985 and 1990. In accord with the manner in which 1980 Census data were collected on race, Hispanics can be of any race and, therefore, data presented in this section for both the White and Black populations contain Hispanics.

With the exception of the table on page 51, *Hispanics and Whites in Five Metropolitan Area...*, this entire section is reprinted from *The Hispanic Almanac*, published by the Hispanic Policy Development Project, Inc. (HPDP), which sponsored the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics. The reprinted section of the Hispanic Almanac was developed by Comprehensive Technologies International (CTI), headquartered in Fairfax, Virginia, under a contract with HPDP.

Size, Growth, and Characteristics of the National Hispanic Population

Overall Socioeconomic Status

Despite the fact that each of the Hispanic subgroups is distinct and best understood individually, it is also instructive to view Hispanics as a national entity and to discuss the statistical portrait of the group.

The most significant characteristic of Hispanics as a U.S. subgroup is its population growth. Hispanics have tripled in number in three decades. This growth far exceeds the growth of any other racial/ethnic group in the United States. Hispanic growth is due to the combined impact of higher fertility and continued immigration. Both of these growth factors affect the socioeconomic indices for Hispanics. Higher fertility is due to the Hispanic population having more women of childbearing age. Women in the high fertility age categories generally drop out of the labor force or postpone job entry when children are young, thus reducing family income.

The income levels of Hispanics, as documented by the 1980 Census, were approximately 70 percent of the income levels for the general population. This is roughly the same income gap that existed in 1970. This may be interpreted in either of two ways: Hispanics have not gained economically, relative to the general population, or Hispanics have managed to keep pace with a changing economy and recessionary periods. Both interpretations are accurate although the perspective is different. In either case, however, Hispanic income has remained constant relative to the income of the general population.

Hispanics are employed in all occupations to some extent. They are more likely to be employed in semiskilled and clerical occupations, and as operatives and service workers. These occupations, while not prestigious, have historically served as stepping stones to better jobs. Although the job structure has changed, these positions should continue to provide take-off points for many Hispanic workers. Undoubtedly, as the educational level of Hispanics as a whole rises, improvements in job promotion and advancement will be more evident. Perhaps the most important question with respect to Hispanic employment is whether Hispanics are adequately prepared for the "high tech society" which is developing. It is a question which cannot be answered easily; however, these industries depend on a large semi-skilled work force, which is promising to Hispanics. On the other hand, with so few Hispanics presently enrolled in professional schools, it is not clear whether Hispanics will be able to take full advantage of the technical positions which will become available.

There is evidence that the overall educational level has risen. Since educational achievement plays such an important role in opening the doors for job search and eventual job experience, it is a positive sign that the social and economic status of Hispanics will continue to improve in the future. These encouraging signs, however positive, should not create complacency, since the high school drop-out rate and attrition at the two-year community college and four-year university levels continue to be high.

Other than English, Spanish is the most common language spoken in the home in the United States; over 11 million persons report the use of Spanish. It is also important to note that the large majority of Spanish speakers report no difficulty in speaking English. Still, there are close to three million monolingual-Spanish individuals in the United States.

On a national level, Hispanics represent 6.4 percent of the national population, while Blacks comprise 11.7 percent of the total. Present trends favor the projection that the Hispanic population will exceed the Black population sometime after the year 2000.

Relative Size and Growth of the Hispanic Population

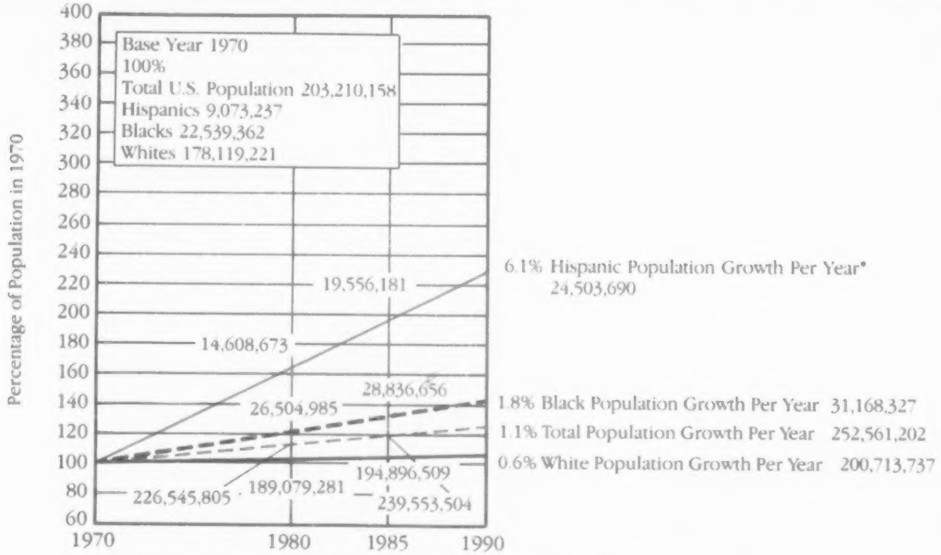
In 1980, the Census estimated the total Hispanic population at 14,608,673. This represents an increase of 61 percent, or 5,535,436 over the 1970 estimate of 9,073,237. The growth rate of the Hispanic population was far ahead of the growth rates for the total U.S. population (11 percent), Whites (6 percent), and Blacks (18 percent) for the same period.

The phenomenal growth of the U.S. Hispanic population is due to a series of factors: the two most important of these are a considerable immigration from Latin America and the Hispanics' relatively greater fertility. And, of course, an improved enumeration of Hispanics in the 1980 Census made the Hispanic population more visible. (Some demographers, in fact, have suggested that up to half the apparent growth may be due to improved enumeration.)

Since 1980 the rapid immigration from Latin America has continued, and U.S. Hispanics remain the most fertile U.S. population subgroup. Therefore it is reasonable to assume a similar growth from 1980 to 1990. As the following chart shows, such a growth rate would bring the 1985 Hispanic population to 19,556,181 and the 1990 total to 24,503,690. Should this rate of growth continue to the year 2000, Hispanics will become the largest minority population in the United States, surpassing Blacks.

The social, political, and economic impact of this growth in the U.S. Hispanic population is already apparent. As Hispanics become an even more important voting block, comprise an ever larger portion of the market, and demand and receive greater social considerations, their increased influence will require an improved understanding of the characteristics of this burgeoning population.

Comparative Growth of U.S. Population Subgroups



Source: CTI projections from 1970 and 1980 Census data. Census sources include: 1980 Hispanic count—Report PC80-S1-7; 1970 Hispanic count—Supplementary Report, "Persons of Spanish Ancestry"; 1980 counts for total U.S. population, Whites and Blacks—Report PHC80-S1-1; 1970 counts for total U.S. population, Whites and Blacks—"United States Summary 1970."

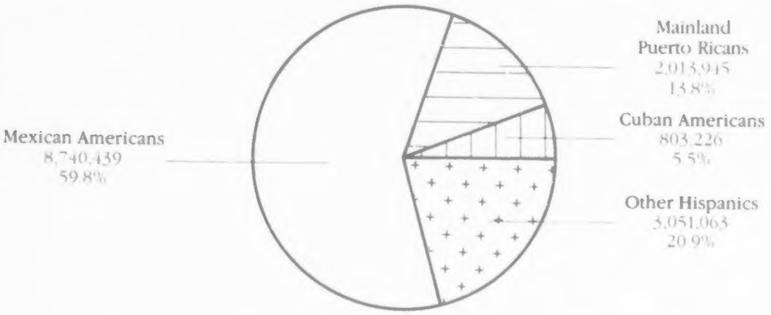
*The total Hispanic population grew by 6.1% per year from 1970 to 1980. From 1980 to 1990 the population is projected to increase by 6.8% per year.

Composition of the U.S. Hispanic Population

Composition of U.S. Hispanic Population, 1980 shows the relative size of Hispanic population subgroups as reported by the 1980 Census. Hispanics in the United States were mostly of Mexican ancestry (59.8 percent). Puerto Ricans were the second largest group, accounting for 13.8 percent of all U.S. Hispanics. (These figures include only those Puerto Ricans living in the 50 U.S. states. The 3,261,000 Puerto Ricans living on the Island of Puerto Rico in 1982 are excluded.) Cubans (5.5 percent) and other Hispanics completed the U.S. Hispanic population in 1980.

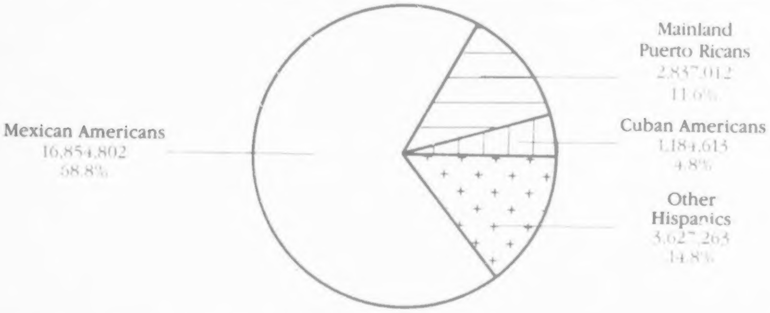
While all Hispanic subgroups registered significant growth from 1970 to 1980, some groups grew faster than others. These differences have changed and will continue to change the composition of the U.S. Hispanic population. Growth rates from 1980 to 1990 similar to the 1970-to-1980 rates will yield the composition shown in *Composition of U.S. Hispanic Population, 1990*. As projected, Hispanics of Mexican ancestry will comprise almost 69 percent of all Hispanics in the United States. All other Hispanic groups will account for smaller portions of the total.

Composition of U.S. Hispanic Population, 1980



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Supplementary Report: Persons of Spanish Origin by State: 1980, PC80-S1-7.

Composition of U.S. Hispanic Population, 1990



Source: CTI projections of 1970 and 1980 Census data drawn from Supplementary Report, "Persons of Spanish Ancestry" and Census Report PC80-S1-7.

National Concentration

The total Hispanic population in the United States reflects a pattern of concentration shaped by past immigration and in-migration trends. Although recent growth trends are beginning to change the pattern of U.S. Hispanic concentrations, Hispanics presently are concentrated in border states or states which historically have served as areas of entry into the United States.

The map, *Concentration of the Total Hispanic Population in the United States*, shows the concentration of Hispanics as documented by the Census in 1980. Over two-thirds of all U.S. Hispanics were shown to reside in four states, led by California's 31.1 percent of the total, followed by Texas with 20.4 percent, New York with 11.4 percent, and Florida with 5.9 percent. Over half the nation's Hispanics were shown to reside in California and Texas.

Although the concentration of Hispanics follows the patterns just described, there is an increasing dispersion throughout the United States. States not previously noted for having concentrations of Hispanics now show substantial populations; examples are Illinois, New Jersey, and Colorado.

The 20 Largest U.S. Hispanic Markets

Any list of the largest Hispanic markets in the United States will depend upon the market definition employed. For example, a market might be defined according to the geographical boundaries of a city, county, or counties, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), or any other limits deemed appropriate.

Increasingly popular among these alternatives is the Area of Dominant Influence (ADI). The ADI is a series of counties meeting specific criteria. The ADI concept originated in the broadcast industry, and counties are included based on the television viewing patterns of their populations.

Although used initially as an indication of television market coverage, the ADI has been accepted as one of the best, if not the best, of the market definitions. Since the economic, social, and political activity of a market is, to a great extent, conveyed by television, the ADI effectively describes the geographical area dominated by an economic center. Thus, the ADI was selected for use in defining the metropolitan areas appearing in the following list. Using the ADI definition, these are the 20 U.S. areas with the greatest concentrations of Hispanics.

The 20 Largest U.S. Hispanic Markets presents the concentration of Hispanics in the United States. In 1980 the Los Angeles ADI accounted for almost 20 percent of the entire U.S. Hispanic population. Adding the New York ADI, with 14 percent of all U.S. Hispanics, these two markets accounted for over one-third of the total group. As expected, New York and Los Angeles were easily the two largest markets, each at least three times larger than any of the remaining 18.

In 1980 most Hispanics (51 percent) were located in the six largest markets: Los Angeles, New York, San Antonio, Chicago, San Francisco and Miami. Adding Houston, McAllen, Albuquerque, and El Paso brought the total to 62 percent of the nation's Hispanics living in the ten largest markets. Overall, 77.9 percent of all Hispanics were concentrated in the 20 largest markets.

The 20 Largest U.S. Hispanic Markets also projects the growth that is expected to take place in these areas. The projections were generated by applying an estimated growth rate and undercount of the 1980 Census counts for the markets. Since the growth rates and estimated undercounts are different for each market, the 1980 list and ranking of the 20 largest markets is projected to change; these changes are shown for 1985 and 1990.

Overall, Hispanics are expected to concentrate increasingly in the 20 largest markets; Los Angeles and New York will continue to be the two largest U.S. Hispanic markets and will continue to contain slightly over one-third of all U.S. Hispanics.

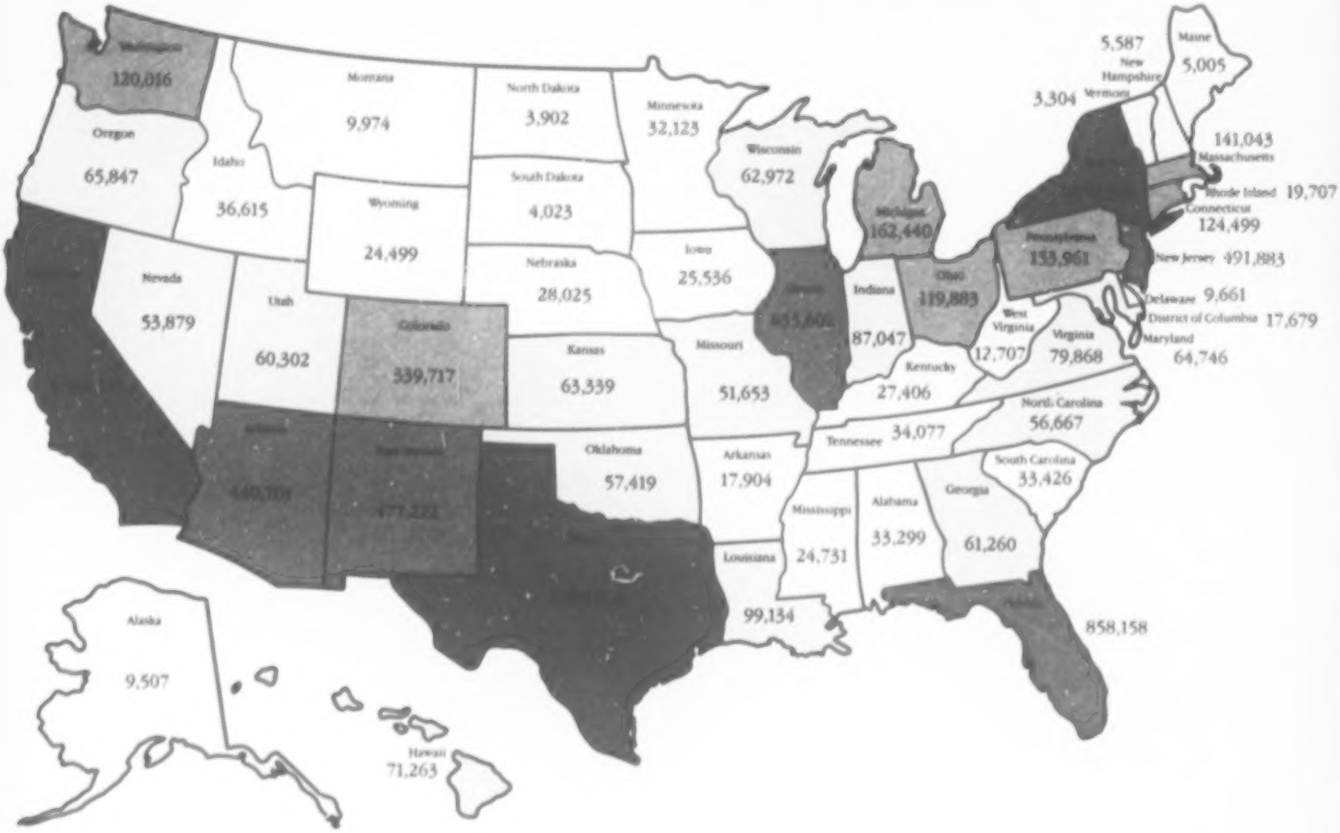
Between 1980 and 1990, the most rapid growth in percentage terms is projected to take place in Houston, San Diego, Salinas-Monterey, and Los Angeles. Those markets making the greatest jump in rank are expected to be Houston, from seventh to third; San Diego, from 12th to ninth; and Austin. From outside the top twenty (21st), Austin is expected to become the 18th largest U.S. Hispanic market by 1990.

In terms of total gain, Los Angeles is projected to realize the greatest increase in the number of Hispanics. The group's population is projected to reach 4,459,499 by 1985 and 6,080,304 by 1990. Houston and Chicago also will realize large total increases in the number of Hispanics.

Trends in the Concentration of Hispanics

The above section projected particularly rapid growth of the Hispanic population in the Los Angeles, Houston, Chicago and Austin markets from 1980 to 1990. On a national basis, states not known for significant concentrations of Hispanics showed the highest percentage growth in Hispanic population between 1970 and 1980. As shown by the map, *Growth of the Hispanic Population by State*, Hispanic population growth was most significant in Oregon (194.8 percent), Hawaii (186.6 percent), Nevada (162.8 percent), Rhode Island (159.4 percent), New Hampshire (144.9 percent), South Carolina (136.9 percent), and Idaho (127.6 percent). Massachusetts, Vermont, Maine, Washington, Alaska, and Florida also had Hispanic population growth exceeding 100 percent from 1970 to 1980. The rapid growth rates of the Hispanic population in the Northeastern and Northwestern United States easily out-paced those of the states where Hispanics traditionally have concentrated—Texas, Arizona, New Mexico, New York, and California, which nevertheless exhibited substantial growth.

CONCENTRATION OF THE TOTAL HISPANIC POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES


Washington
120,016
Oregon
65,847
Idaho
36,615
Montana
9,974
Wyoming
24,499
North Dakota
3,902
South Dakota
4,023
Nebraska
28,025
Minnesota
32,123
Iowa
25,536
Wisconsin
62,972
Michigan
162,440
Nevada
53,879
Utah
60,302
Colorado
339,717
Kansas
63,339
Missouri
51,653
Illinois
635,602
Indiana
87,047
Ohio
119,883
Pennsylvania
153,961
Arizona
440,701
New Mexico
477,222
Oklahoma
57,419
Arkansas
17,904
Tennessee
34,077
Kentucky
27,406
West Virginia
12,707
Virginia
79,868
North Carolina
56,667
South Carolina
33,426
Georgia
61,260
Alabama
33,299
Mississippi
24,731
Louisiana
99,134
Florida
858,158
Maine
5,005
New Hampshire
5,587
Vermont
3,304
Massachusetts
141,043
Rhode Island 19,707
Connecticut
124,499
New Jersey 491,883
Delaware 9,661
District of Columbia 17,679
Maryland
64,746
Alaska
9,507
Hawaii
71,263

Legend

0- 50,000	☐
50,000- 100,000	☐
100,001- 400,000	▨
400,001-1,000,000	■
1,000,001+	■

The Number of Hispanics by State

Numbers Included Within State Boundaries Are 1980 Census Counts of Hispanics

Source: Data from Census Report PC80-S1-7.

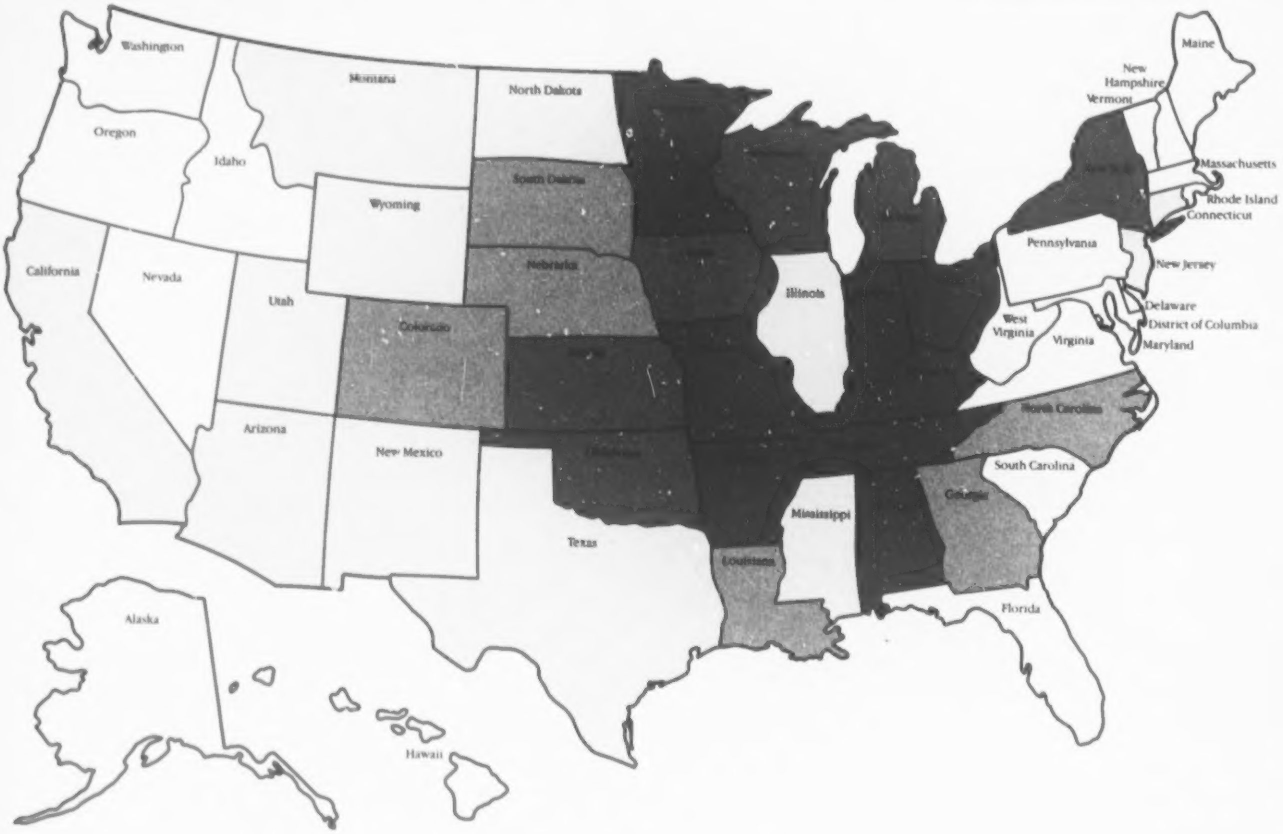
The 20 Largest U.S. Hispanic Markets

ADI Market*	1980 Rank and Hispanic Population		1985 Rank and Hispanic Population		1990 Rank and Hispanic Population	
	Rank	Hispanic Population (Census Estimates)	Rank	Hispanic Population (CTI Estimates)	Rank	Hispanic Population (CTI Estimates)
Los Angeles	1	2,838,694	1	4,459,499	1	6,080,304
New York	2	2,063,007	2	2,400,053	2	2,737,098
San Antonio	3	650,703	7	818,892	7	987,080
Chicago	4	640,245	3	962,196	4	1,284,147
San Francisco	5	638,112	5	823,261	6	1,008,410
Miami	6	628,468	6	821,412	5	1,014,356
Houston	7	484,560	4	892,299	3	1,300,038
McAllen	8	452,343	8	624,171	8	815,998
Albuquerque	9	368,091	9	509,854	10	651,616
El Paso	10	357,043	10	499,499	11	641,954
Fresno	11	295,389	12	393,026	13	490,663
San Diego	12	275,177	11	474,174	9	673,171
Phoenix	13	269,598	13	385,783	12	501,968
Dallas-Fort Worth	14	266,128	15	361,982	15	457,836
Sacramento	15	260,926	14	367,573	14	474,219
Corpus Christi	16	229,435	17	289,972	17	350,509
Denver	17	228,756	16	328,507	16	428,258
Philadelphia	18	182,620	18	230,884	19	279,147
Tucson	19	153,122	19	210,894	20	268,666
Salinas-Monterey	20	114,207		176,318		238,429
Austin		109,307	20	206,668	18	304,029
Totals (Top 20 Only)		**11,376,624**		**16,060,599**		**20,749,467**

Source: 1980 figures from U.S. Census Report Series PC80-1-B; 1985 and 1990 estimates are CTI projections of 1980 Census figures based on a continuation of 1970-1980 growth rates and CTI's estimates of Census undercount described in each market section.

*See text for explanation of ADI market definitions.

Growth of The Hispanic Population by State



Washington
Oregon
Idaho
Montana
North Dakota
Wyoming
South Dakota
Nebraska
Colorado
California
Nevada
Utah
Arizona
New Mexico
Kansas
Oklahoma
Texas
Illinois
Mississippi
Louisiana
Georgia
North Carolina
South Carolina
Florida
West Virginia
Virginia
Pennsylvania
New York
Maine
New Hampshire
Vermont
Massachusetts
Rhode Island
Connecticut
New Jersey
Delaware
District of Columbia
Maryland
Alaska
Hawaii

Legend

100% + Increase ☐

51.0-99.9% Increase ☐

26.0-50.9% Increase ▨

0-25.9% Increase ■

Decrease ■

The Percentage Increase In Hispanic Population By State

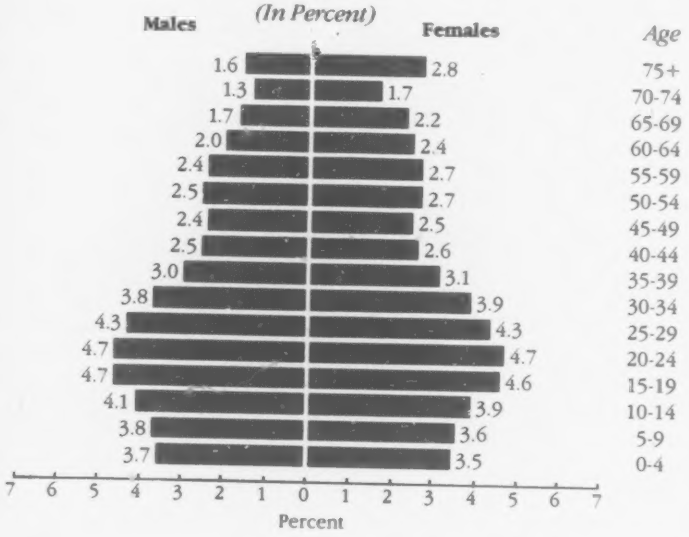
Source: CTI calculations based on census counts from "Supplementary Report, Persons of Spanish Ancestry, 1970" and Census Report PC80-S1-7.

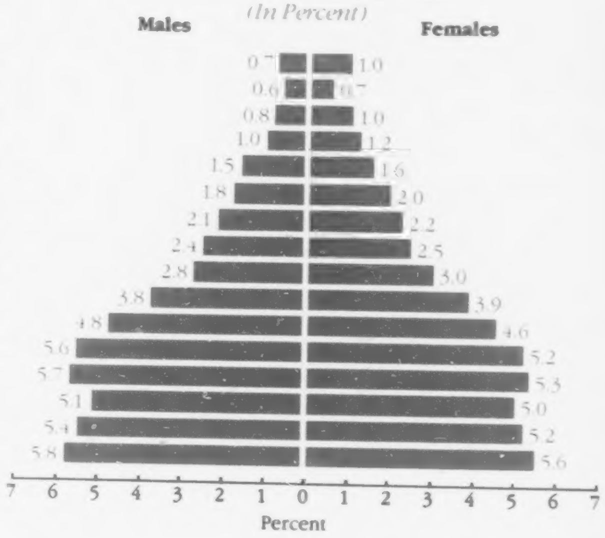
GROWTH OF THE HISPANIC POPULATION BY STATE, 1970-1980

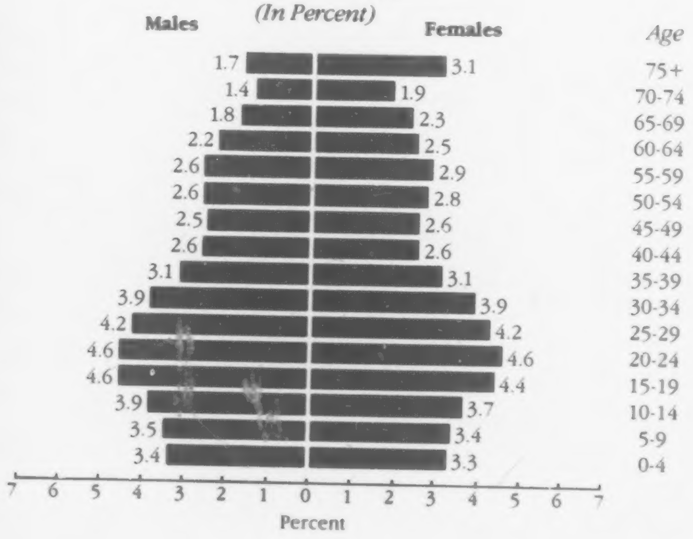
State	Hispanic Population, 1980	% Increase	Increase/Decrease Hispanic Population	State	Hispanic Population, 1980	% Increase	Increase/Decrease Hispanic Population
Alabama	33,299	−14.3%	−5,549	Montana	9,974	57.2%	3,650
Alaska	9,507	105.6%	4,882	Nebraska	28,025	34.9%	7,257
Arizona	440,701	66.3%	175,695	Nevada	53,879	162.8%	33,374
Arkansas	17,904	−26.5%	−6,454	New Hampshire	5,587	144.9%	3,306
California	4,544,331	91.8%	2,175,583	New Jersey	491,883	70.5%	203,395
Colorado	339,717	50.6%	114,211	New Mexico	477,222	54.8%	168,882
Connecticut	124,499	90.2%	59,031	New York	1,659,300	22.7%	306,998
Delaware	9,661	14.0%	1,184	North Carolina	56,667	30.5%	13,253
District of Columbia	17,679	17.0%	2,571	North Dakota	3,902	56.6%	1,410
Florida	858,158	111.9%	453,121	Ohio	119,883	−7.8%	−10,113
Georgia	61,260	35.3%	15,971	Oklahoma	57,419	12.0%	6,135
Hawaii	71,263	130.9%	40,399	Oregon	65,847	194.8%	43,509
Idaho	36,615	127.6%	20,529	Pennsylvania	153,961	41.4%	45,068
Illinois	635,602	61.6%	242,255	Rhode Island	19,707	159.4%	12,111
Indiana	87,047	−22.6%	−25,425	South Carolina	33,426	136.9%	19,315
Iowa	25,536	21.8%	4,514	South Dakota	4,023	37.4%	1,094
Kansas	63,339	16.9%	9,154	Tennessee	34,077	−31.3%	−15,511
Kentucky	27,406	−38.8%	−17,352	Texas	2,985,824	62.2%	1,144,962
Louisiana	99,134	40.5%	28,559	Utah	60,302	77.8%	26,391
Maine	5,005	105.7%	2,572	Vermont	3,304	105.1%	1,693
Maryland	64,746	42.4%	19,285	Virginia	79,868	98.6%	39,646
Massachusetts	141,043	113.2%	74,897	Washington	120,016	109.2%	62,658
Michigan	162,440	7.5%	11,370	West Virginia	12,707	44.7%	3,297
Minnesota	32,123	−13.8%	−5,134	Wisconsin	62,972	0.1%	94
Mississippi	24,731	56.4%	8,916	Wyoming	24,499	76.3%	10,605
Missouri	51,653	−14.0%	−8,438				

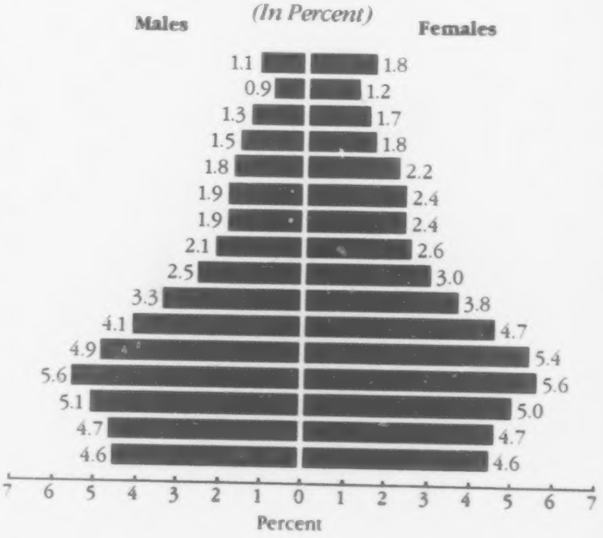
Sources: CTI calculations based on census counts from "Supplementary Report, Persons of Spanish Ancestry, 1970" and Census Report PC80-S1-7. American Demographics Magazine Editors, *State Demographics: Population Profiles of the 50 States*. Dow Jones-Irwin, Homewood, Illinois.

Age and Sex Distributions


226,545,805
Total U.S. Population*
(In Percent)


14,608,673
Total U.S. Hispanic Population
(In Percent)


189,079,281
Total U.S. White Population
(In Percent)


26,504,985
Total U.S. Black Population
(In Percent)

Source: CTI calculations based on data acquired from U.S. Census Report PC80-S1-1.

Note: Due to rounding, a summation of the percentages of males and females for all age categories may not yield 100% exactly.

*Note: The Hispanic population, those of Spanish origin as reported by the Census, are not considered for enumeration purposes to be a separate racial group. Hispanics are also included in the other groups according to their race. *Because of the resultant duplication, the population figures for each of the subgroups cannot be added to yield total population.*

Hispanics in the United States are a youthful and highly fertile population. The preceding population pyramids present the age and sex distributions for the three largest U.S. population subgroups (Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics) and the total U.S. population. A brief glance at the shapes of the pyramids indicates that those for the Black and Hispanic populations have broader bases and narrower tops. This identifies these two groups as relatively younger.

A more specific analysis of the charts shows the White population to be more aged and relatively less fertile compared to Hispanics or Blacks or the total U.S. population. The relatively greater concentration of the White population in the higher age groupings and its corresponding lower-fertility are both cause and effect of the lower growth rates shown for the group in the chart, *Comparative Growth of U.S. Population Subgroups*. Only 30.2 percent of all Whites are under 20, and only 47.8 percent are under 30, while 16.9 percent are over 60. Finally, the median age of the U.S. White population is 31.3.

The U.S. Black population is younger and more fertile than the White and total U.S. populations; 39.9 percent of U.S. Blacks are under 20, 59 percent are under 30, and 11.3 percent are over 60. The median age of the group is only 24.9. These characteristics have given rise to the relatively higher Black growth rate.

The U.S. Hispanic population is easily the most youthful and fertile population, compared to the total U.S. population and to the other two major population subgroups. Its youthful base has made the Hispanic population the fastest growing major subgroup in the United States and promises to continue this growth into the future. Of the major groups, Hispanics have the highest portion of their population in the younger age categories, the lowest portion in the higher age categories, the greatest percentage in the prime childbearing age classifications, and the lowest median age. Some 43.1 percent of all Hispanics in the United States are under 20, 63.3 percent are under 30, and only 7.0 percent are over 60. The group's median age is 22.1 years.

Income

In 1980 the Census estimated the 1979 mean and median family incomes of Hispanics to be $17,360 and $14,711, respectively, and 23.8 percent of the nation's Hispanics were projected to be living below the poverty level.

The mean family income of Hispanics was below that of Whites ($24,279) and the total population ($23,177), and higher than that of Blacks ($15,721). Similarly, the median family income of Hispanics was below that of Whites ($20,840) and the total population ($19,908), and higher than that of Blacks ($12,618). The percentage of Hispanics living below the poverty level was lower than for Blacks (30.2 percent), although significantly higher than for Whites (9.4 percent) or the total population (12.5 percent). (But since Hispanic families generally are large, per capita income for Hispanics is lower than the family income suggests.)

Measured by these three indicators, the total U.S. Hispanic population appears to be economically better off than the Black population and worse off than Whites or the total population.

Comparative Income of U.S. Population Subgroups

Population Group	Mean Family Income, 1979	Median Family Income, 1979	% of Persons Below Poverty Level in 1979
Whites	$24,279	$20,840	9.4%
Blacks	$15,721	$12,618	30.2%
Hispanics	$17,360	$14,711	23.8%
Total Population	$23,177	$19,908	12.5%

Source: 1980 Census Report PHC80-S1-1

Occupations by U.S. Subgroup

Occupations	Total Population	Whites	Blacks	Hispanics
White-Collar Workers				
Professional, Technical and Kindred Workers	15.8%	16.3%	10.5%	8.2%
Managers and Administrators, Except Farm	11.2%	12.0%	4.3%	6.5%
Sales Workers	6.2%	6.6%	2.6%	3.9%
Clerical and Kindred Workers	18.7%	18.7%	19.1%	15.9%
Subtotal	51.9%	53.6%	36.5%	34.5%
Blue-Collar Workers				
Craft and Kindred Workers	12.8%	13.3%	9.3%	12.3%
Operatives, Including Transport	14.4%	13.9%	19.1%	25.9%
Laborers, Except Farm	4.7%	4.4%	7.7%	7.2%
Subtotal	31.9%	31.6%	36.1%	45.4%
Service Workers				
Private Household Workers	1.1%	0.8%	3.9%	1.5%
Service Workers, Except Private Household	12.7%	11.7%	21.7%	14.6%
Subtotal	13.8%	12.5%	25.6%	16.1%
Farm Workers				
Farmers and Farm Managers	1.3%	1.4%	0.2%	0.2%
Farm Laborers and Supervisors	1.1%	1.0%	1.6%	3.8%
Subtotal	2.4%	2.4%	1.8%	4.0%
Total	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: CTI calculations based on data acquired from *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the U.S.: 1980*, Series P-60, No. 132, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Employment

For those employed, *Occupations by U.S. Subgroups* describes the occupations of the total U.S. population, Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics. A review of the occupational distribution for the total population shows that more than half (51.9 percent) of all Americans are concentrated in the white-collar occupations: professional, technical and kindred workers, non-farm managers and administrators, sales workers, and clerical and kindred workers. Close to one-third (31.9 percent) of all employed Americans hold blue-collar occupations. An additional 13.8 percent are service workers, while 2.4 percent are farm workers.

As the majority population, Whites closely reflect these national figures. They are slightly more concentrated in the white-collar occupations, slightly less concentrated in the blue-collar occupations and service occupations, and equal to the national concentration in the farm occupations.

The Black population differs significantly from the total and White populations in employment. Blacks are equally concentrated in the white-collar and blue-collar occupations, whereas Whites, for example, are far more concentrated in white-collar positions. Also, in percentage terms, almost twice as many Blacks are service workers compared to the total and White populations. Finally, relatively fewer Blacks are farm workers.

Of the four groups analyzed, Hispanics are the least concentrated in the white-collar occupations; 34.5 percent are white-collar workers, compared to 51.9 percent of the total population, 53.6 percent of Whites, and 36.5 percent of Blacks. This is due in part to the greater educational requirements of the white-collar professions. As will be shown in the analysis of Hispanic educational attainment, Hispanics lag behind other U.S. population subgroups in years of school completed. This has restricted Hispanic entry into white-collar positions, particularly the non-clerical occupations.

Hispanics are much more concentrated in blue-collar employment. Fully 45.4 percent of all Hispanics are blue-collar workers, compared to 31.9 percent of the total population, 31.6 percent of Whites, and 36.1 percent of Blacks. This is due not only to the educational differences noted above, but also the particularly high number of Hispanics employed as transport and non-transport operatives.

Some 16.1 percent of all working Hispanics are service workers. This is somewhat higher than the figure for the total U.S. population, although significantly lower than the 25.6 percent of Blacks who are service workers.

The traditional participation of many Hispanics in agricultural work is shown in the 4.0 percent employed as farm workers. While only a small portion of the Hispanic employment base, in percentage terms farm work provides almost twice as many jobs for Hispanics as for the total population.

Comparative Educational Status

The Hispanic population of the United States lags behind the total U.S. population, Whites, and Blacks in educational attainment. This is shown by the table *Comparative Educational Status of U.S. Population Subgroups*. Looking at the years of school completed for those 25 years of age or older, it may be seen that Hispanics, compared to the other groups, have completed fewer years of school in each of the educational classifications. For example, 18.4 percent of the total U.S. population has only an elementary school education or less, with Whites and Blacks having 16.6 percent and 27.7 percent of their respective populations at that same level. However, 40.9 percent of U.S. Hispanics have only an elementary school education or less.

Likewise, in other categories, Hispanics are shown to be behind the other groups. Overall, 56.8 percent of all Hispanics have less than a high school education, and 42.3 percent have at least a high school education. Of the total U.S. population, 33.7 percent have not completed high school, while 66.4 percent have done so.

The relatively low educational attainment of Hispanics in the United States is due to several factors. The figures undoubtedly reflect the large scale immigration of Hispanics with little education. A second factor pertains to language difficulties which have also discouraged many Hispanics from continuing their education beyond required levels or beyond those already achieved outside the United States.

On the positive side, Hispanics have fared relatively well, given the overall level of education of the group. For example, they have higher mean and median family incomes than the Black population. Over time, as the educational gap is closed, the group will achieve more of its economic potential and will surpass the socioeconomic advancements already made.

Use of Spanish Language

Spanish is clearly the second most important language in the United States. The 1980 Census estimated that 11,117,606 individuals, five or older, speak Spanish at home.

In addition, 3,293,783 people, five and older, were estimated to speak only English in households in which others speak Spanish, and 1,537,457 children under five have parents who speak Spanish at home.

Home speakers of Spanish represent 5.3 percent of the total five-and-older population, compared to the estimated 11,855,804, or 5.6 percent of the age group, who speak other languages at home.

Home speakers of Spanish and others with Spanish language backgrounds experience difficulty in the English-speaking mainstream if they have not mastered English. In the 1980 Census, an estimated 1,770,047 home speakers of Spanish reported that they have difficulty speaking English. It was estimated that another 937,733 do not speak English at all. Together these two groups represent 1.3 percent of the total five-and-older population. The 18-and-over population is more likely to rely on Spanish than is the five-to-17 age group. Proportionally more of the 18-and-over group who speak Spanish at home reported speaking English not well or not at all.

Spanish Language Usage in the Total U.S. Population

Language Category	Persons 5-17 Years		Persons 18 and Over		Total Persons 5 and Over	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Speak Only English at Home	**42,922,138**	**90.5**	**144,309,205**	**88.7**	**187,231,343**	**89.1**
Speak Spanish at Home	**2,947,051**	**6.2**	**8,170,555**	**5.0**	**11,117,606**	**5.3**
Speak English Well or Very Well	2,474,619	5.2	5,879,301	3.6	8,353,920	4.0
Speak English Not Well or Not at All	472,432	1.0	2,291,254	1.4	2,763,686	1.3
Speak Other Language at Home	**1,582,047**	**3.3**	**10,273,757**	**6.3**	**11,855,804**	**5.6**
Totals	**47,451,236**	**100.0**	**162,753,517**	**100.0**	**210,204,753**	**100.0**

Source: U.S. Census Document PHC-80-S1-1

Comparative Educational Status of U.S. Population Subgroups

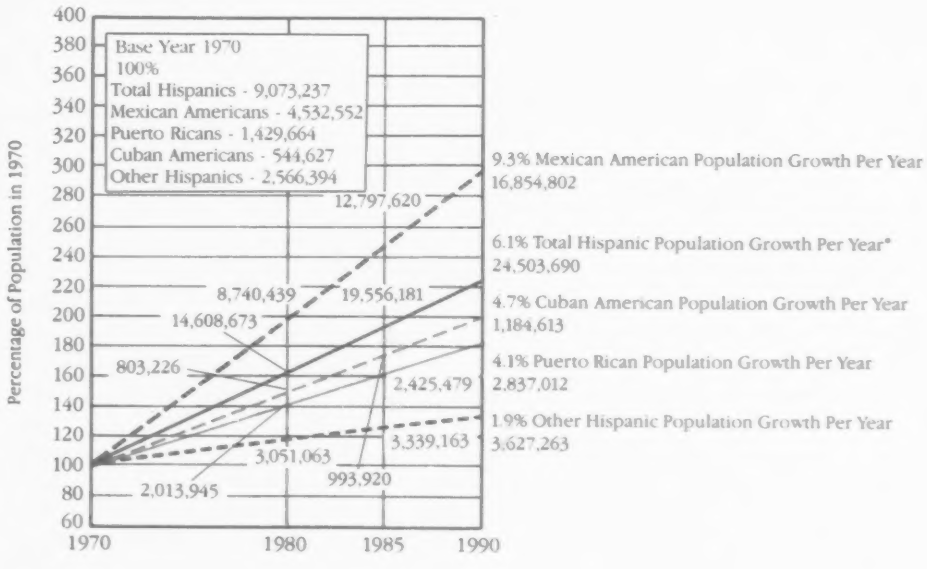
Years of School Completed (For Those 25 & Older)	Whites		Blacks		Hispanics		Total Population	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Elementary School (0-8 Yrs.)	19,013,059	16.6	3,651,341	27.7	2,749,058	40.9	24,370,124	18.4
1-3 Yrs. High School	16,736,499	14.6	2,866,703	21.7	1,067,273	15.9	20,320,142	15.3
4 Yrs. High School	40,628,258	35.5	3,802,235	28.8	1,607,312	23.9	45,691,481	34.4
1-3 Yrs. College	18,306,564	16.0	1,762,720	13.4	788,094	11.7	20,800,462	15.7
4 or More Yrs. College	19,616,869	17.2	1,106,217	8.4	514,819	7.7	21,593,443	16.3
Totals	114,301,249	99.9	13,189,216	100.0	6,726,556	100.1	132,775,652	100.1

Source: U.S. Census Document PHC80-S1-1.

1985-1990 POPULATION GROWTH PROJECTIONS: HISPANIC SUBGROUPS

Percentages Denote Growth Rates Established Between 1970 and 1980.

Data Points and Corresponding Numbers Document Projected or Actual Populations at a Given Point in Time.



*The total Hispanic population grew by 6.1% per year from 1970 to 1980. From 1980 to 1990 the population is projected to increase by 6.8% per year.

Source: CTI projections of 1970 and 1980 Census data. Census sources include: 1970 counts — Supplementary Report, "Persons of Spanish Ancestry," and 1980 counts — Census Report PC80-S1-7

Comparative Analysis of Hispanic Population Subgroups

Hispanic Subgroup Population Size and Growth

Overall, the Hispanic population has registered significant growth since 1970, and all major Hispanic subgroups grew at rates significantly higher than the 11-percent increase in the total U.S. population between 1970 and 1980.

The major Hispanic classifications in the United States are Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and Other Hispanics. Of the 14,608,673 Hispanics living in the United States in 1980, as estimated by the Census, 8,740,439 were of Mexican ancestry. This represented a 93-percent increase since 1970, making the Mexican American population the fastest growing of all Hispanic subgroups. A continuation of the growth rate, which is likely, would place the Mexican American population at 16,854,802 by 1990, or more than the total Hispanic population in 1980.

The Other Hispanics category was the second largest subgroup in 1980, with a total of 3,051,063. However, this group registered a growth rate (19 percent) from 1970 to 1980 which was lower than that of the other groups. Expected to remain the second largest subgroup, the Other Hispanics population is projected to reach 3,339,163 by 1985 and 3,627,263 by 1990.

Puerto Ricans represent the third largest and the third fastest growing Hispanic population subgroup. In 1980 the Census estimated that 2,013,945 Puerto Ricans were living in the 50 states—an increase of 41 percent, or 584,281. A straight-line projection of the group's population yields populations of 2,425,479 in 1985 and 2,837,012 in 1990.

In 1980 there were 803,226 Cuban Americans in the United States, as estimated by the Census. While this made them the fourth largest Hispanic subgroup, they had the second highest growth rate—48 percent—between 1970 and 1980. If this growth rate continues, the Cuban American population will reach 993,920 by 1985 and 1,184,613 by 1990. This may be a high estimate, since the Cuban American population is a less fertile group.

Age Distribution

The chart, *Comparative Age Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups*, presents the concentrations of each of the major Hispanic subgroups and the total U.S. population by age category. It also provides the median ages of each of the groups.

Comparing the median ages, it can be seen that the Puerto Rican population is the youngest and the Cuban American population is the most aged. While the median age of the total U.S. population is 30.1 years, Puerto Ricans have a median age of only 20.7 years. Cuban Americans are the only Hispanic subgroup with a median age (33.5 years) exceeding that of the total population. The Mexican American population also has a low median age, 21.4 years, and Other Hispanics have a median age of 23.3 years. Overall, the median age of Hispanics in the United States (22.1 years) is low, relative to the total population.

The age distribution shows Hispanics nationally to be much more concentrated in the younger age categories than the national population. For example, 47.7 percent of all Hispanics are 20 or under, compared to 34.1 percent for the total U.S. population. A similar comparison with the Hispanic subgroups shows Puerto Ricans to be most concentrated in the 20 and under age categories; 50.5 percent of the group are 20 or under. Following closely behind are Mexican Americans and Other Hispanics with 49.3 percent and 45.4 percent, respectively, concentrated in the 20 and under ages.

Cuban Americans are close to the total U.S. population in concentration in the younger age categories. Pushing the median age of the group higher than for all Americans is the large number of Cuban Americans between the ages of 35 and 54; 30.9 percent are within this range compared to 22.0 percent of the total U.S. population.

Overall, then, Hispanics in the United States are a youthful population: the only exception is the Cuban American subgroup. The youthfulness of U.S. Hispanics is both cause and effect of their rapid population growth and will continue to produce significant increases in the number of Hispanics in the near future.

Sex Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups

Hispanic Subgroup	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Mexican Americans	8,740,439	100.0	4,492,586	51.4	4,247,853	48.6
Puerto Ricans	2,013,945	100.0	926,415	46.0	1,087,530	54.0
Cuban Americans	803,226	100.0	400,007	49.8	403, 219	50.2
Other Hispanics	3,051,063	100.0	1,458,408	47.8	1,592,655	52.2
All Hispanics	14,608,673	100.0	7,277,416	49.8	7,331,257	50.2

Source: CTI estimates based on data acquired from U.S. Census Document Series P-20, No. 361 and U.S. Census Supplementary Report PC80-S1-7.

Comparative Age Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups

Age	Population Group					
	226,545,805: Total Population	14,608,673: All Hispanics	8,740,439: Mexican Americans	2,013,945: Puerto Ricans	803,226: Cuban Americans	3,051,063: Other Hispanics
Under 5 Years	7.3%	12.9%	13.5%	13.5%	7.2%	12.1%
5-9 Years	7.4%	11.3%	11.9%	12.1%	7.7%	10.0%
10-17 Years	13.7%	17.0%	17.0%	18.7%	14.8%	17.1%
18-20 Years	5.7%	6.5%	6.9%	6.2%	5.0%	6.2%
21-24 Years	7.2%	7.7%	8.4%	7.0%	5.9%	6.9%
25-34 Years	16.2%	16.5%	17.4%	17.6%	11.1%	15.0%
35-44 Years	11.6%	11.1%	10.0%	10.8%	16.8%	12.7%
45-54 Years	10.4%	7.9%	7.2%	7.1%	14.1%	8.6%
55-64 Years	9.6%	4.8%	4.1%	4.5%	7.6%	6.1%
65 Years & Over	10.9%	4.2%	3.7%	2.7%	9.7%	5.4%
Totals	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.2%	99.9%	100.1%
Median Age	30.1	22.1	21.4	20.7	33.5	23.3

Source: U.S. Census Document Series P-20, No. 361. "Other Hispanics" category was assembled by CTI from data supplied by this document

Sex Distribution

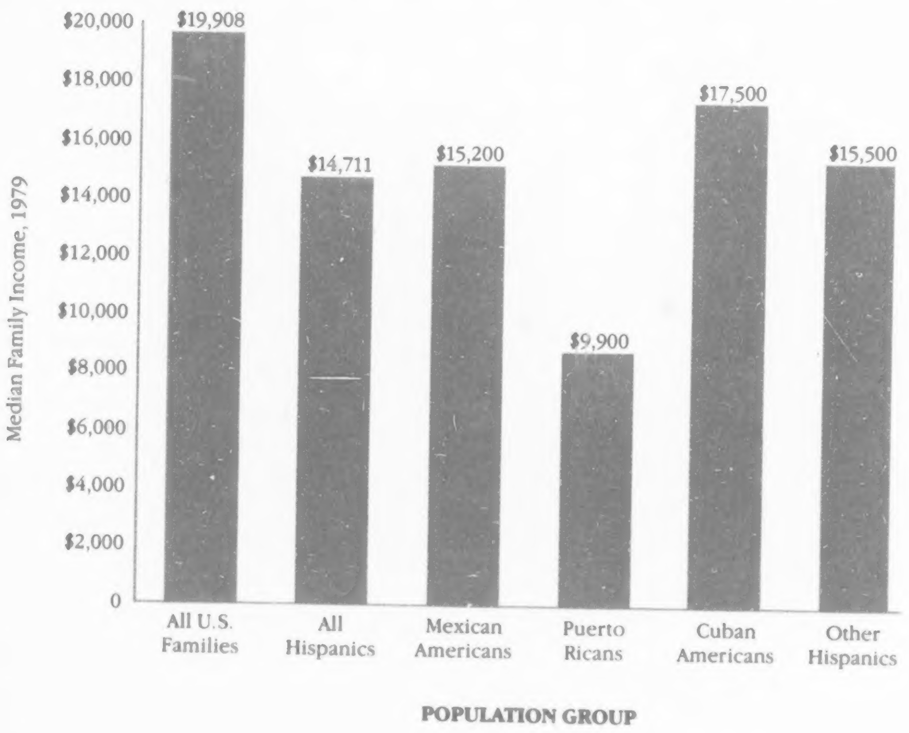
Sex Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups documents the number of males and females by Hispanic subgroup. Nationally, the U.S. population consists of 51.4 percent females and 48.6 percent males. Hispanics, nationally, consist of 50.2 percent females and 49.8 percent males. The slightly higher percentage of males reflects the Mexican American subgroup, the only group that has a majority of males. It also suggests a process of selective migration wherein higher percentages of males have entered the United States in pursuit of employment.

Income

Comparative Median Family Income of Hispanic Subgroups, 1979 shows how the income of each of the Hispanic subgroups compares to the others and to the national median. As indicated, the median family incomes of each of the subgroups and all Hispanics were below the median for all U.S. families ($19,908). The median family income of all Hispanics ($14,711) was more than $5,000 below and only 74 percent of that of all U.S. families.

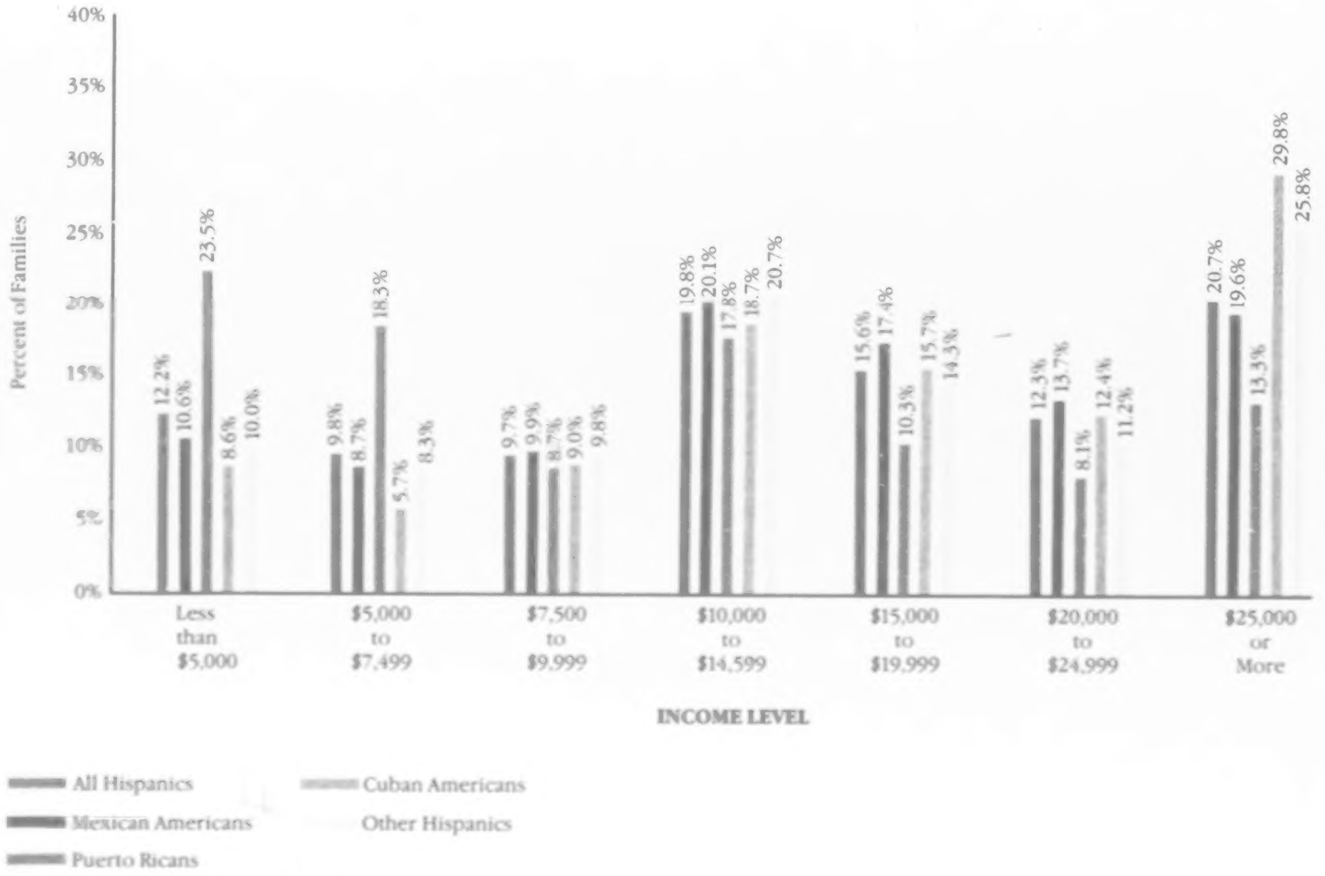
Of all Hispanic subgroups, Cuban Americans have the highest median family income. In 1979 their me-

Comparative Median Family Income of Hispanic Subgroups, 1979



Source: U.S. Census Document Series P-20, No. 361 for Hispanics subgroup data and Census Report PHC80-S1-1 for "all Hispanics" and "all U.S. families."

Comparative Income Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups, 1979



Source: U.S. Census Document Series P-20, No. 361.

dian of $17,500 per year exceeded the $15,200 of Mexican Americans, the $15,500 of other Hispanics, and the $9,900 of Puerto Ricans. While all subgroups are below the national median for all U.S. families, the $9,900 median family income of the Puerto Rican population is extremely low.

Comparative Income Distribution of Hispanic Subgroups, 1979 indicates where family incomes for each group are concentrated within a range of income levels. As expected from a review of median family incomes, the Cuban American population exhibits higher percentages of family incomes in the higher income categories, and Puerto Ricans exhibit higher percentages of family incomes in the lower income categories.

Employment

Major Occupations of Total U.S. and Hispanic Populations provides a comparative analysis of the occupations of Hispanic population subgroups. Overall, Hispanics are less concentrated in white-collar occupations and more concentrated in blue-collar, farm, and service occupations relative to the total U.S. population.

Of the Hispanic subgroups, Other Hispanics are most concentrated in white-collar occupations, followed closely by Cuban Americans. Mexican Americans are least concentrated in white-collar jobs. With respect to blue-collar occupations, Mexican Americans are most concentrated in this category, while Other Hispanics are found least in these occupations. Compared to the total U.S. population, all Hispanic subgroups are more concentrated in blue-collar occupations.

Mexican Americans exceed the national participation rate of all Americans in farm occupations. This group has filled a high proportion of the agricultural jobs in the United States. With the exception of Cuban Americans, all Hispanic subgroups exceed the participation of the total U.S. population in service work.

Major Occupations of Total U.S. and Hispanic Populations

Major Occupations	Total Population	Total Hispanics	Mexican Americans	Puerto Ricans	Cuban Americans	Other Hispanics
White-Collar Workers						
Professional, Technical and Kindred Workers	15.8%	8.2%	6.3%	8.9%	12.4%	13.1%
Managers and Administrators, Except Farm	11.2%	6.5%	6.1%	3.7%	9.0%	8.4%
Sales Workers	6.2%	3.9%	3.1%	3.4%	5.9%	5.3%
Clerical and Kindred Workers	18.7%	15.9%	15.7%	19.1%	14.4%	16.8%
Subtotal	51.9%	34.5%	31.2%	35.1%	41.7%	43.6%
Blue-Collar Workers						
Craft and Kindred Workers	12.8%	12.3%	14.9%	10.4%	12.4%	13.6%
Operatives, Including Transport	14.4%	25.9%	23.7%	29.8%	28.4%	18.7%
Laborers, Except Farm	4.7%	7.2%	9.3%	5.0%	6.1%	5.7%
Subtotal	31.9%	45.4%	47.9%	45.2%	46.9%	38.0%
Service Workers	13.8%	16.1%	16.3%	18.6%	11.3%	16.6%
Farm Workers						
Farmers and Farm Managers	1.3%	0.2%	0.2%	—	0.2%	0.7%
Farm Laborers and Supervisors	1.2%	3.8%	4.4%	1.1%	—	1.0%
Subtotal	2.5%	4.0%	4.6%	1.1%	0.2%	1.7%
Totals	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%

Source: CTI assembly of data acquired from U.S. Census Document Series P-20, 361 and "Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the U.S.: 1980," Series P-60, No. 132, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Characteristics of the Mexican American Population

Socioeconomic Status

Perhaps the Hispanic group most difficult to categorize, due to size, geographic distribution, and long history, are the Mexican Americans—Hispanics of Mexican origin. They consist of recent arrivals as well as families who lived in what is now the United States well before the arrival of Europeans. Predominantly a rural and agricultural people through the early 1900s, Mexican origin persons now are more urbanized than the general U.S. population. This rapid transformation, over a period of four to five decades, has changed the nature of this group.

Prior to World War II, most Mexican Americans were relegated to a low socioeconomic status. A great number of the group's labor force were seasonal migrant workers. Over time, many Mexican origin persons became part-time residents in small to medium-sized towns (particularly along the U.S.-Mexico border) and part-time seasonal migrant workers. This pattern was significant because it provided a relatively stable site for the integration of new migrants and immigrants from Mexico. The next step, from small town to large city, was accelerated by the mechanization of agriculture and by the demand for labor to construct the growing metropolitan areas of the Southwest.

Some Mexican origin families who had traveled the migrant flows through the agricultural Midwest and Pacific Northwest "settled out" and became permanent residents of some area, held usually by the availability of more stable industrial jobs. This helped create emerging populations in Chicago, the Yakima Valley, and other locations outside the Southwest where job opportunities were found in railroad construction and the cattle industry. Many Mexican Americans also began to migrate to California, and over the past 30 years, California's Mexican American population has continued to increase relative to the Mexican origin populations in Texas, New Mexico, and Colorado.

An important feature of the Southwestern states, where most Mexican Americans are found, is their proximity to the U.S.-Mexico border. The two countries share twin cities, binational markets, and a long history of economic interdependence.

The Southwest traditionally has been a low-wage area, compared to other parts of the United States, and the fact that Mexican origin persons are concentrated in this region reduces their overall national income. For the near future, the large over-supply of labor in the border countries is likely to have a depressing effect on wages in those areas. However, the outlook is somewhat brighter in that the Southwestern states have gained industries and capital investment, relative to other parts of the nation. The growing Sun Belt economy must depend, to some extent, on the increasingly Mexican American labor force.

Concentration

The Mexican American population is highly concentrated in two states: California and Texas. As the map *Concentration of Mexican Americans in the United States* indicates, 3,637,466, or 41.6 percent of the total group, resided in California as of 1980. Texas had a tototal of 2,752,487 Mexican Americans, adding another 31.5 percent of the total. Thus, fully 73.1 percent of the nation's Mexican Americans were concentrated in these two states in 1980. Illinois contained 4.7 percent; Arizona contained 4.5 percent. Thus, 82.3 percent of U.S. Mexican Americans resided in these four states in 1980.

Statistical Summary

In 1980 there were 8,740,439 Hispanics of Mexican ancestry living in the United States. This represented a tremendous increase—93 percent—from 1970-1980, due to a combination of immigration and the group's high fertility (although part of the apparent increase may in fact be due to the 1970 Census undercount). Since both the immigration and fertility rates are expected to persist into the near future, the Mexican American population is projected to again greatly increase between 1980 and 1990, reaching 12,797,620 by 1985 and 16,854,802 by 1990.

In 1980 Mexican Americans comprised 59.8 percent of all Hispanics in the United States. (The 59.8-percent figure denoting those U.S. Hispanics who are Mexican Americans may be another kind of undercount. In the 1980 Census some 192,275 Texas Hispanics, 241,235 New Mexico Hispanics, and 126,778 Colorado Hispanics identified themselves as Other Hispanics, although a large number could be termed Mexican Americans.) Because of the relatively rapid growth of the group, the Mexican American population is projected to comprise 68.8 percent of all U.S. Hispanics by 1990.

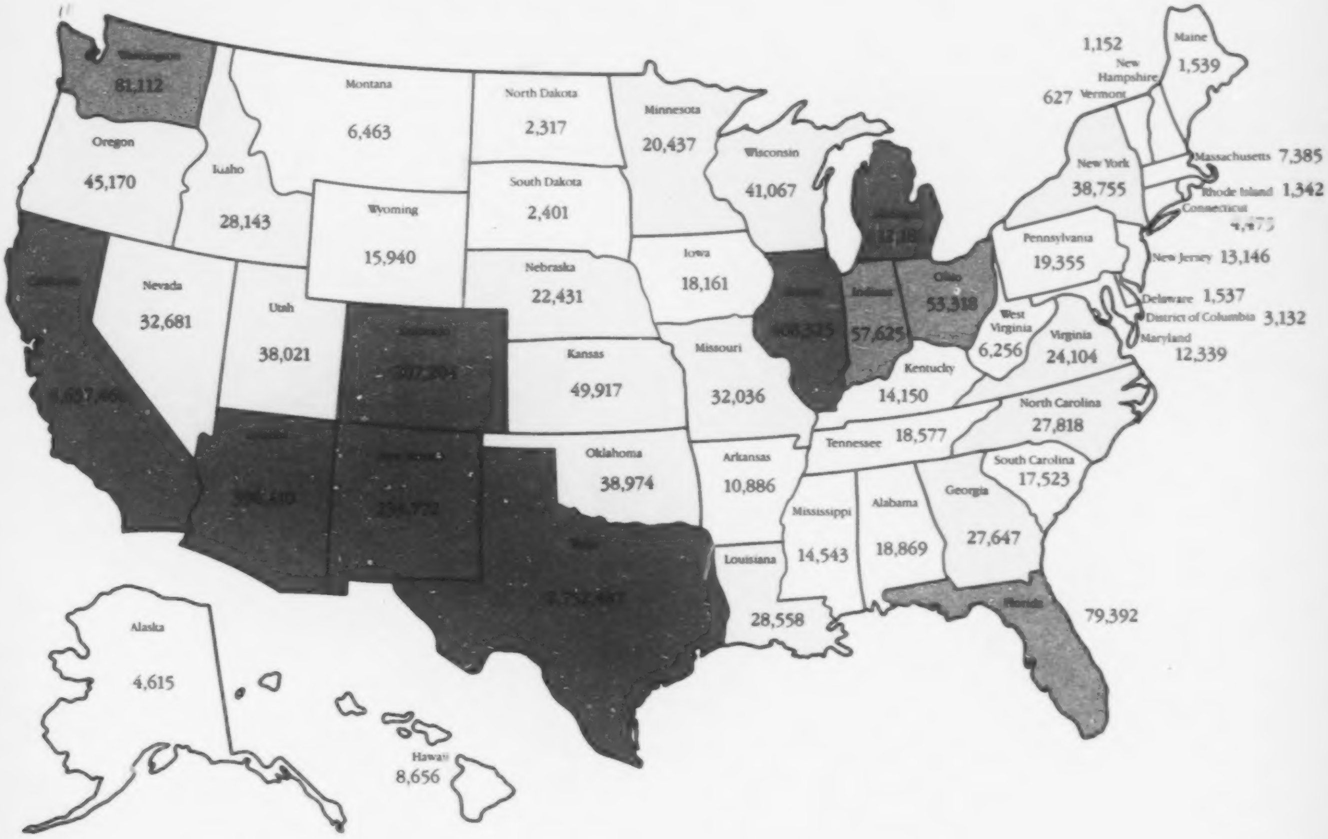
As noted, this rapid growth is in part due to the group's fertility. The median age of the population is 21.4 years, compared to a median age of the overall U.S. population of 30.1 years. Whereas 57.6 percent of the total U.S. population is under 35, fully 75.1 percent of the Mexican American population is under 35.

The median family income of Mexican Americans for 1979 was $15,200. This placed the group significantly below the national median family income of $19,908. Some 29.2 percent of the Mexican American population earned under $10,000 per year, 37.5 percent earned between $10,000 and $20,000 per year, and 33.3 percent earned in excess of $20,000 per year.

Compared to the total U.S. population, the occupations of the Mexican American labor force reflect a relatively low concentration in white-collar jobs and relatively high concentrations in blue-collar jobs, farm work, and service occupations. The 31.2 percent of Mexican Americans holding white-collar positions compares to 51.9 percent of the total population. Some 47.9 percent of the group are blue-collar workers, compared to 31.9 percent of the total population.

In summary, the Mexican American population, though increasingly dispersed, is still highly concentrated geographically, is growing rapidly, is youthful, has a relatively low income, and is concentrated in blue-collar occupations.

Concentration of Mexican Americans in the United States



81,112
Oregon
45,170
Idaho
28,143
Montana
6,463
Wyoming
15,940
Nevada
32,681
Utah
38,021
North Dakota
2,317
South Dakota
2,401
Nebraska
22,431
Kansas
49,917
Oklahoma
38,974
Minnesota
20,437
Iowa
18,161
Missouri
32,036
Arkansas
10,886
Louisiana
28,558
Wisconsin
41,067
408,325
Indiana
57,625
Ohio
53,318
Kentucky
14,150
Tennessee
18,577
Mississippi
14,543
Alabama
18,869
Georgia
27,647
Florida
79,392
South Carolina
17,523
North Carolina
27,818
West Virginia
6,256
Virginia
24,104
Pennsylvania
19,355
New York
38,755
Maine
1,539
New Hampshire
1,152
Vermont
627
Massachusetts
7,385
Rhode Island
1,342
Connecticut
New Jersey
13,146
Delaware
1,537
District of Columbia
3,132
Maryland
12,339
Alaska
4,615
Hawaii
8,656

Legend

0- 20,000 ☐

20,001-50,000 ☐

50,001-100,000 ▨

100,001-400,000 ■

400,000+ ■

The Number of Mexican Americans by State

Numbers Included Within States' Boundaries Are 1980 Census Counts of Mexican Americans

Source: Data from Census Report PC80-S1-7.

Statistical Profile of Mexican Americans

POPULATION

SIZE	**1980**	**1985**	**1990**
	8,740,439	12,797,620*	16,854,802*

GROWTH RATE 9.3%/Yr.

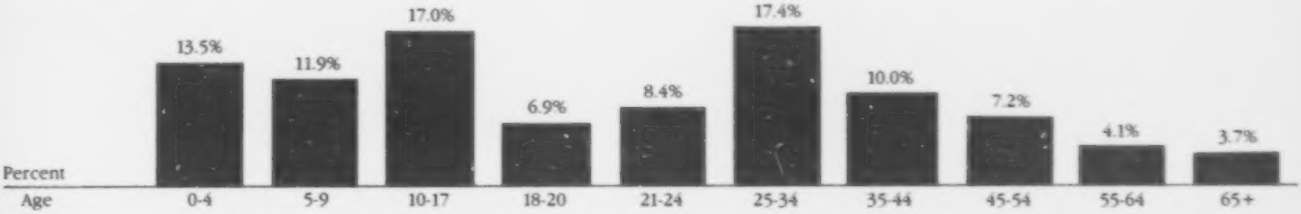
PERCENT OF TOTAL HISPANICS, 1980 59.8%

CONCENTRATION
(Percentage of Total Group Concentrated in Selected States)

California	41.6%
Texas	31.5%
Illinois	4.7%
Arizona	4.5%
4 State Total	82.3%

AGE

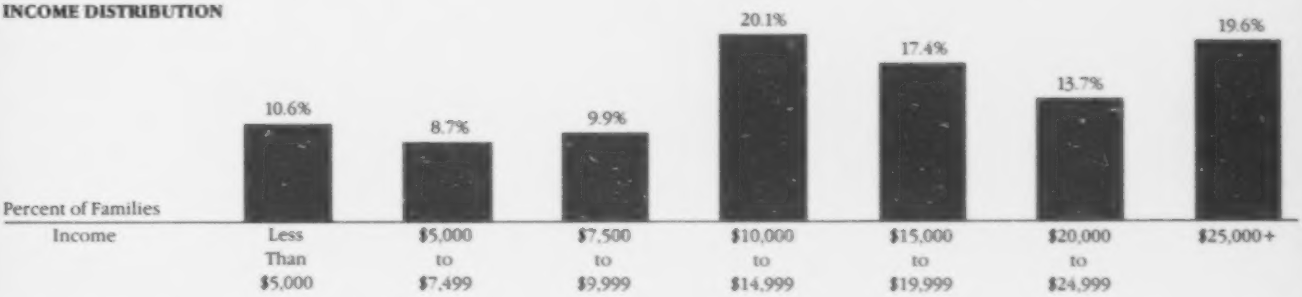
AGE DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN AGE 21.4 Years

INCOME

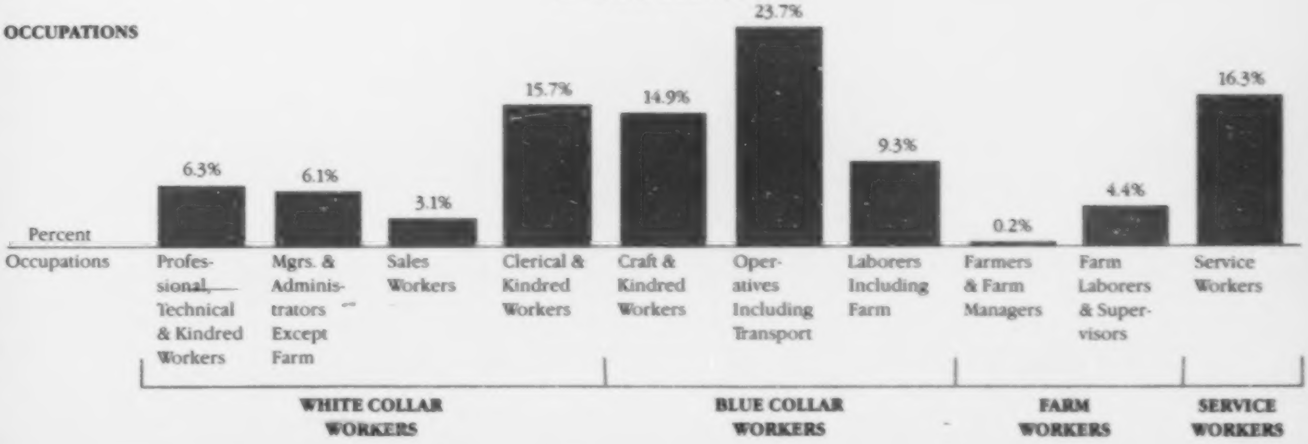
INCOME DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME $15,200/Year in 1979

EMPLOYMENT

OCCUPATIONS



Source: 1980 Census data unless denoted by an *, in which case generated by CTI projections.

Characteristics of the Puerto Rican Population

Socioeconomic Status

Puerto Ricans are the most metropolitan of Hispanic populations in the United States, and New York City has been their center since the early 1900s. Historically—and currently—migration to the mainland has been a search for employment, particularly employment in unskilled jobs. U.S. citizens by birth, Puerto Ricans have free access to the United States. But it was not until the post-World War II period that Puerto Rican migration and settlement made them visible among the nation's diverse European ethnic groups.

Mainland Puerto Ricans are not easy to categorize. Some are recent arrivals from the island. Some, as migrant workers, move back and forth between the island and the mainland. Still others are U.S. born. Each of these groups is distinct.

One of the characteristics of the Puerto Rican population is its pattern of migration. While many Puerto Ricans have moved to cities in New Jersey and Connecticut within the New York metropolitan area, others have chosen to jump from New York to Philadelphia, Boston, Cleveland, Chicago, San Francisco, and other locations.

A second characteristic of the population is its poverty. Socioeconomic indices for Puerto Ricans generally are the lowest of all Hispanic groups; the numbers of inner city Puerto Ricans statistically overwhelm the smaller, better educated Puerto Rican population. According to the 1980 Census, 50.5 percent of mainland Puerto Rican families have annual incomes of less than $10,000, and nearly half of those families have incomes under $5,000—figures related to the fact that large numbers of mainland Puerto Rican families are headed by women.

Finally, Puerto Ricans must be viewed as a dynamic population. Despite a 30-year decrease in net immigration, one should not underestimate the magnitude of their movements between the island and the mainland. These flows continually change the character of the Puerto Rican population, on the island as well as in the United States.

Puerto Rican migration peaked during the 1950s and has decreased steadily since that time. Today, however, the growth of the U.S. Puerto Rican population is no longer dependent upon the island-to-mainland migration, but is largely the result of natural increase. Puerto Ricans, originally a migrant population, are increasingly a native-born U.S. population.

Concentration

Concentration of Puerto Ricans in the United States shows where Puerto Ricans resided according to 1980 Census counts. New York was by far the state with the most Puerto Rican residents. Almost half (49 percent) of the group's total population of 2,013,945 lived in that state, and the vast majority of these were concentrated in the New York SMSA.

The bordering state of New Jersey also has a large Puerto Rican population, accounting for another 12.1 percent of the total in 1980. Over 60 percent of all Puerto Ricans in the 50 states lived in New York and New Jersey in 1980. Illinois, Florida, and California also had relatively large Puerto Rican populations; in 1980 an additional 15.7 percent of all mainland Puerto Ricans resided in these three states. Thus, three of every four (76.8 percent) Puerto Ricans in 1980 lived in the five states of New York, New Jersey, Illinois, Florida, and California.

Statistical Summary

Summary statistics for the Puerto Rican population living on the mainland are presented in *Statistical Profile of Puerto Ricans*. The 1980 total of 2,013,945 mainland Puerto Ricans represented an increase of 41 percent over 1970. This growth was largely the result of the group's youth and high fertility. As these characteristics of the population will persist into the near future, a similar growth rate between 1980 and 1990 is expected, bringing the Puerto Rican population to 2,425,479 by the end of 1985 and to 2,837,012 by 1990. In 1980 Puerto Ricans represented 13.8 percent of all Hispanics living in the 50 states.

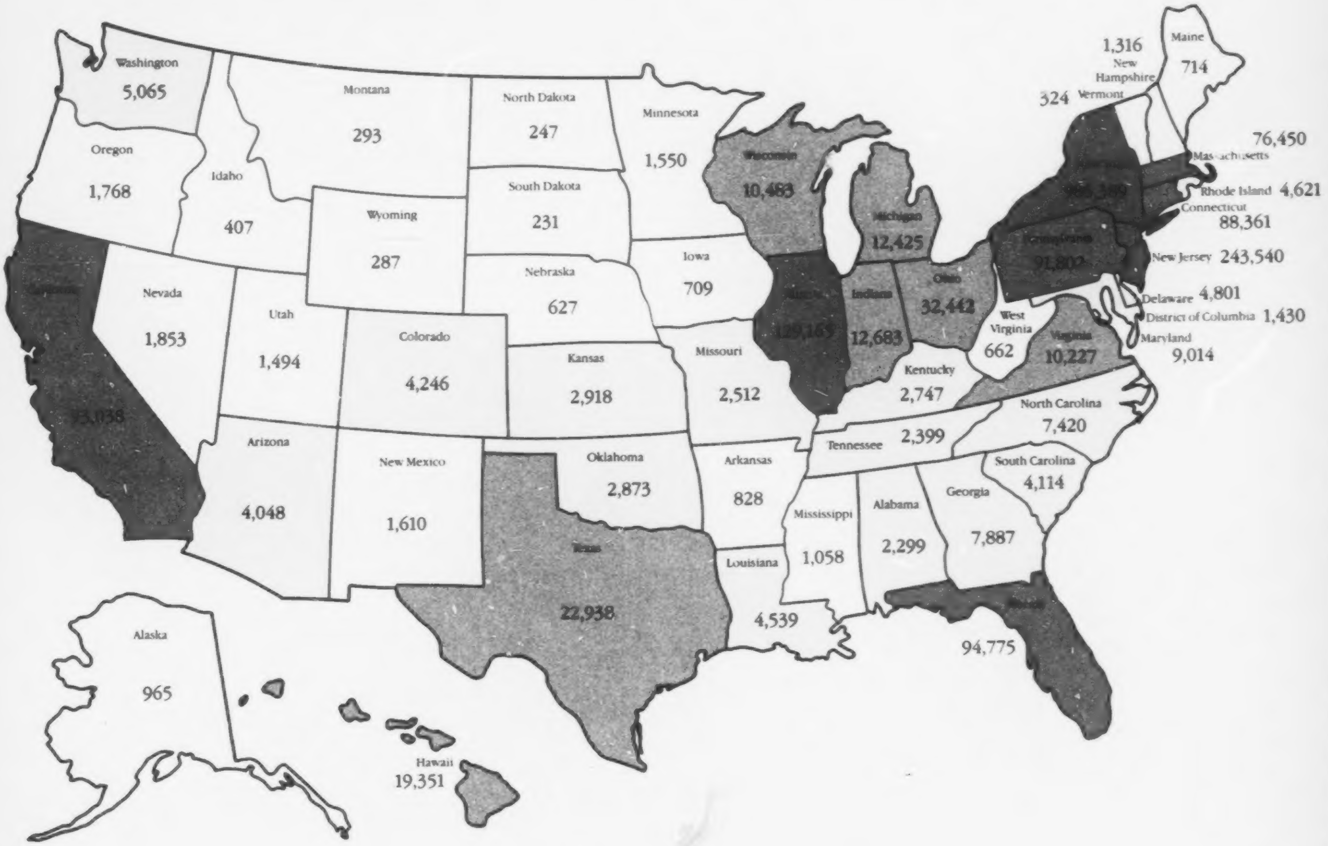
The youthfulness of the Puerto Rican population is striking. The median age of the group is 20.7 years, compared to 30.1 years for the total U.S. population, and 75.1 percent of the group is under the age of 35, compared to 57.6 percent of the total U.S. population.

The Puerto Rican population is a low-income group. The $9,900 median family income reported for 1979 was substantially below the median family income of all Americans, $19,908. A very high 50.5 percent of Puerto Rican families earned less than $10,000 per year; 28.1 percent earned between $10,000 and $20,000, and 21.4 earned $20,000 or more.

The four most common occupational categories of the Puerto Rican labor force are clerical and kindred workers (19.1 percent), craft and kindred workers (10.4 percent), operatives (29.8 percent), and service workers (18.6 percent). Fully 77.9 percent of all Puerto Ricans employed held a position in one of these occupational categories. Overall, compared to the total U.S. population, the group is less concentrated in white-collar occupations and farm work, and more concentrated in blue-collar positions and service work.

In summary, the Puerto Rican population in the 50 states is youthful, is growing at an impressive rate, has a relatively low income, and tends to be employed in blue-collar and service occupations.

Concentration of Puerto Ricans in the United States


Washington
5,065
Oregon
1,768
California
93,038
Idaho
407
Nevada
1,853
Montana
293
Wyoming
287
Utah
1,494
Arizona
4,048
Colorado
4,246
New Mexico
1,610
North Dakota
247
South Dakota
231
Nebraska
627
Kansas
2,918
Oklahoma
2,873
Texas
22,938
Minnesota
1,550
Iowa
709
Missouri
2,512
Arkansas
828
Louisiana
4,539
Wisconsin
10,483
Illinois
129,165
Michigan
12,425
Indiana
12,683
Ohio
32,442
Kentucky
2,747
Tennessee
2,399
Mississippi
1,058
Alabama
2,299
Georgia
7,887
Florida
94,775
South Carolina
4,114
North Carolina
7,420
West Virginia
662
Virginia
10,227
Pennsylvania
91,802
Maryland
9,014
District of Columbia 1,430
Delaware 4,801
New Jersey 243,540
Connecticut
88,361
Rhode Island 4,621
Massachusetts
76,450
Vermont
324
New Hampshire
1,316
Maine
714
Alaska
965
Hawaii
19,351

Legend

0- 2,000	☐
2,001- 10,000	☐
10,001- 50,000	▨
50,001-100,000	■
100,000+	■

Legend
The Number of Puerto Ricans by State

Numbers Included Within State Boundaries Are 1980 Census Counts of Puerto Ricans

Source: Data from Census Report PC80-S1-7

Statistical Profile of Puerto Ricans

POPULATION

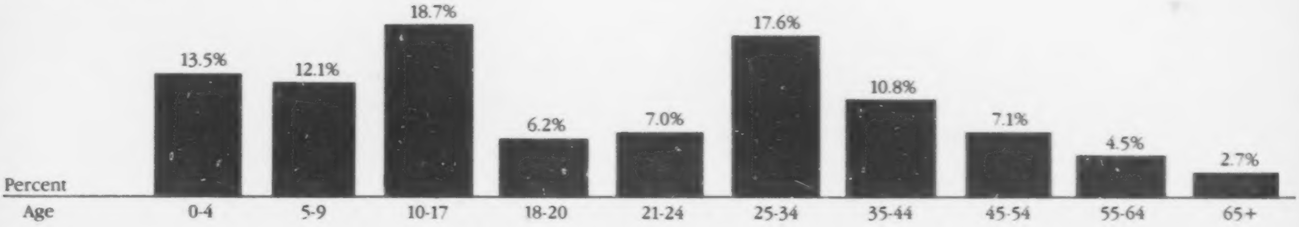
SIZE	**1980**	**1985**	**1990**
	2,013,945	2,425,479*	2,837,012*

GROWTH RATE 4.1%/Yr. **PERCENT OF TOTAL HISPANICS, 1980** 13.8%

CONCENTRATION (Percentage of Total Group Concentrated in Selected States)		
	New York	49.0%
	New Jersey	12.1%
	Illinois	6.4%
	Florida	4.7%
	California	4.6%
	5 State Total	76.8%

AGE

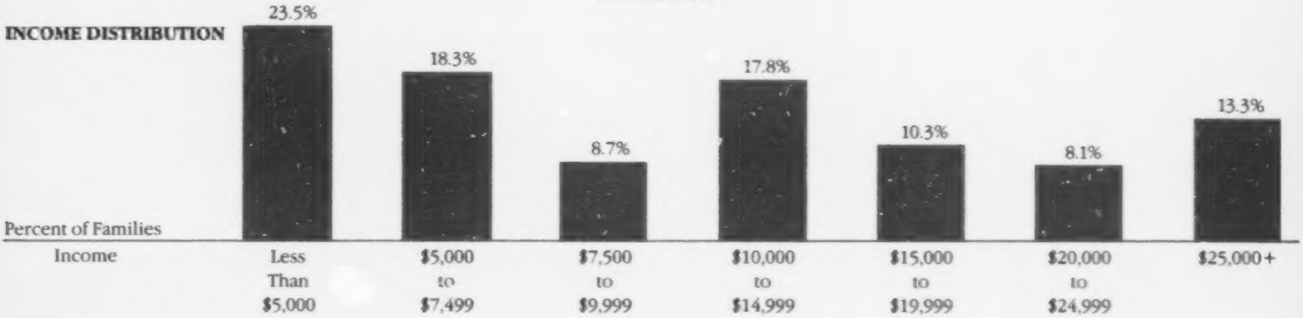
AGE DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN AGE 20.7 Years

INCOME

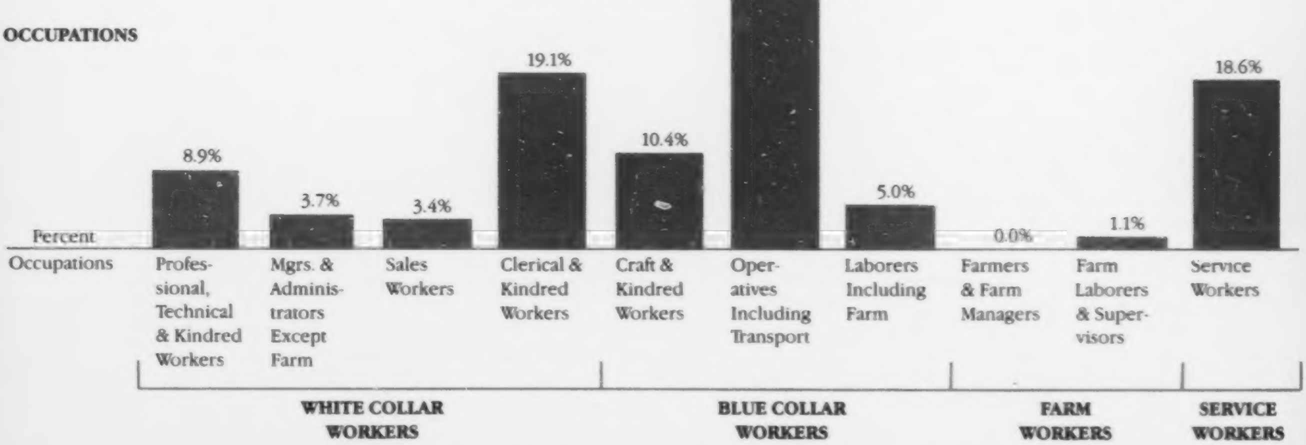
INCOME DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME $9,900/Year in 1979

EMPLOYMENT

OCCUPATIONS



Source: 1980 Census data unless denoted by an*, in which case generated by CTI projections.

Characteristics of the Cuban American Population

Socioeconomic Status

Cuban Americans are not a homogeneous or easily understood population, although the vast majority arrived in the United States within the last 20 years, and 85 percent of them live in Florida.

For descriptive purposes, the U.S. Cuban population can be divided into several groups—the Cuban refugees, excluding the Mariel entrants; the Mariel entrants themselves; those born in the United States; and those who live outside Florida. Obviously, however, some of these groups overlap considerably.

The Cuban refugees have received a great deal of attention because of their industriousness and determination. From a tenuous economic foothold in the early '60s, the group has launched many social and economic initiatives over the past two decades, in the process producing a major economic revitalization of Florida's Miami area.

Compared with other Hispanic subgroups, the Cuban refugees are characterized by a relatively high proportion of elderly persons, high levels of educational attainment, and relatively high levels of income, business ownership, and affluence. They tend to be active in community affairs, politically conservative, and strongly linked with Latin America. Overall, the Cuban refugees appear to be a group striving for, and to a great extent achieving, the American dream.

The second group is composed of the children of the refugees, either U.S.-born or brought into the United States at an early age. One positive characteristic of this fully bilingual second group is its higher-than-average educational level, which should lead to significant social and economic advances.

Both groups—the earlier refugees and their children—are in transition. By virtue of its age, the older generation will decrease in size dramatically over the next decade, and the U.S.-born generation will be challenged to assume the same levels of influence and to achieve the same levels of success as did the older generation.

As for the Mariel entrants, the vast majority of these 125,000 immigrants of the 1980 boatlift have adjusted fairly well to life in the United States, notwithstanding negative media coverage, some erroneous reports of violence in the relocation camps, and actual crimes committed by some of them. Their adjustment is not as successful or salient as that of the 1960 Cuban immigrants. But their arrival process was more disorganized, occurred over a shorter time span, and took place during a period of economic crisis in the United States.

Cuban Americans who live outside Florida—mainly in New Jersey, New York, and California—in many cases live where they do because of the U.S. Cuban relocation program; others have found the educational and employment opportunities in these areas more appealing.

It must be noted that although Cubans generally fare better, compared with Mexicans and Puerto Ricans, they are behind Other Hispanics with respect to socioeconomic indices, and they are always behind non-Hispanic Whites in socioeconomic achievements.

Concentration

As the map, *Concentration of Cuban Americans in the United States* shows, this Hispanic subgroup is highly concentrated in a few states, and more evenly dispersed over the remainder of the 50 states. A full 85.8 percent of the nation's Cuban Americans live in four states: Florida, New Jersey, New York, and California. Some 470,250 or 58.5 percent live in Florida. New Jersey accounts for another 10.1 percent, New York 9.6 percent, and California 7.6 percent. More striking, however, is the fact that 50.7 percent of all Cuban Americans in the United States live in the Miami SMSA (Dade County, Florida). This makes the Cuban American population the most geographically concentrated of the Hispanic population subgroups.

Statistical Summary

Statistical Profile of Cuban Americans provides summary data on Cuban Americans in the United States. As may be seen, the size of the Cuban American population in 1980 was 803,226. This represented a 47-percent increase from 1970, a much more rapid growth rate than those experienced by the total U.S., the White, and the Black populations. A continuation of this growth rate will bring the total population of the group to 993,920 by 1985 and 1,184,613 by 1990. Cuban Americans comprise 5.5 percent of the total U.S. Hispanic population.

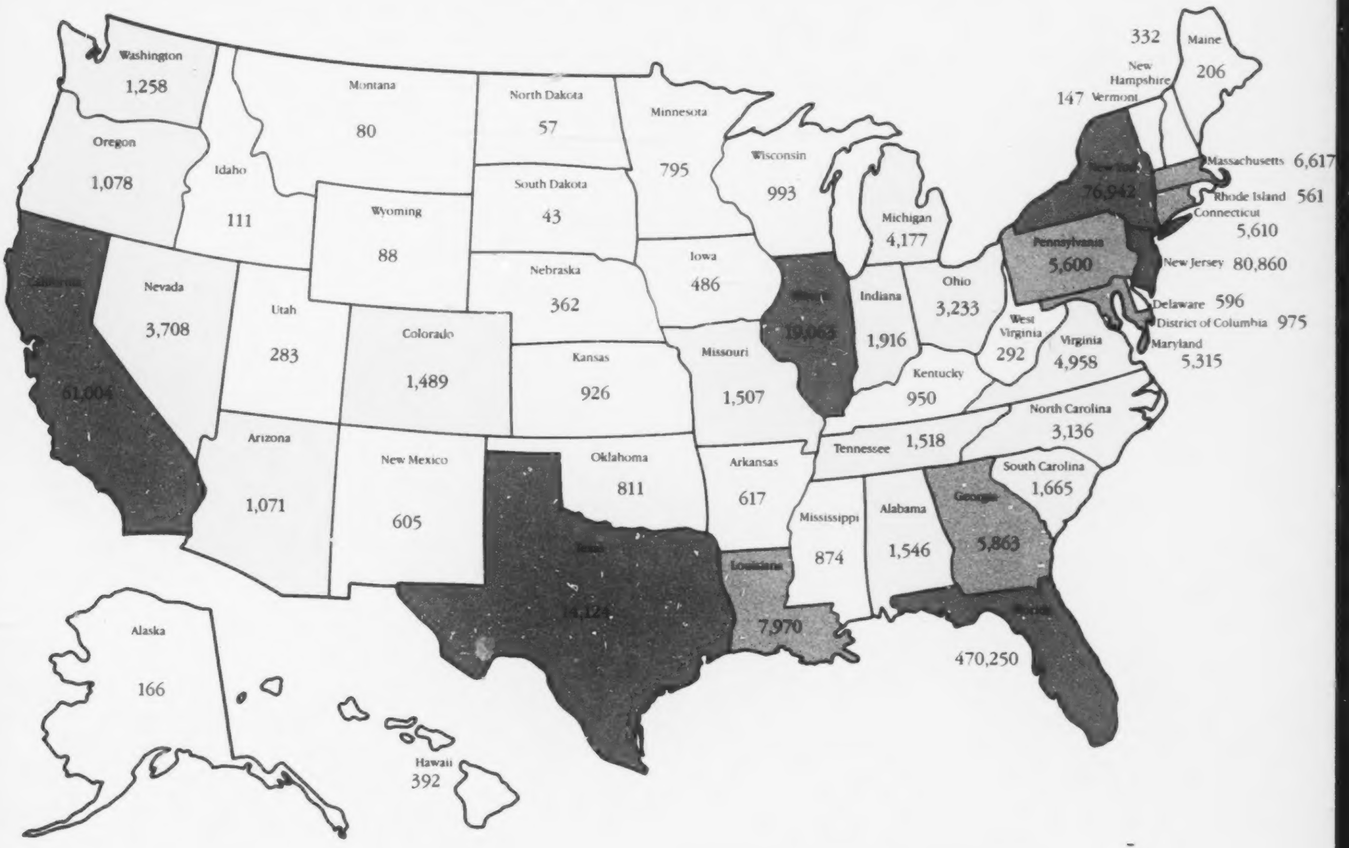
The age statistics show that Cuban Americans are a relatively aged population group. The group's median age is 33.5 years. Although Hispanics as a whole tend to be youthful, the median age of Cuban Americans is higher than the 30.1 years of the total U.S. population or the 31.3 years of the White population. Some 30.9 percent of all Cuban Americans are 35-54 years of age, compared to 22.0 percent of the total U.S. population. The concentration in this age range is due to the immigration of younger Cubans during the early '60s.

Income statistics gathered by the Census for 1979 revealed that Cuban Americans have the highest median family income of the major Hispanic subgroups. The group's median family income was $17,500, and a relatively high 29.8 percent of all Cuban American families had annual incomes of $25,000 or more.

Cuban Americans are more concentrated in the blue-collar occupations and less concentrated in white-collar, farm, and service occupations compared to the total U.S. population. However, compared to other Hispanic population subgroups, the group's labor force is more concentrated in white-collar occupations. Overall, 41.7 percent are in white-collar occupations, 46.9 percent are blue-collar workers, 0.2 percent are farm workers, and 11.3 percent are service workers.

In summary, Cuban Americans are the oldest, highest earning, most geographically concentrated, and most white-collar-employed of the major Hispanic population subgroups.

Concentration of Cuban Americans in the United States



Washington 1,258
Oregon 1,078
California 61,004
Idaho 111
Nevada 3,708
Montana 80
Wyoming 88
Utah 283
Arizona 1,071
Colorado 1,489
New Mexico 605
North Dakota 57
South Dakota 43
Nebraska 362
Kansas 926
Oklahoma 811
Texas 14,124
Minnesota 795
Iowa 486
Missouri 1,507
Arkansas 617
Louisiana 7,970
Wisconsin 993
Illinois 19,063
Michigan 4,177
Indiana 1,916
Ohio 3,233
Kentucky 950
Tennessee 1,518
Mississippi 874
Alabama 1,546
Georgia 5,863
Florida 470,250
South Carolina 1,665
North Carolina 3,136
Virginia 4,958
West Virginia 292
Maryland 5,315
District of Columbia 975
Delaware 596
New Jersey 80,860
Pennsylvania 5,600
New York 76,942
Connecticut 5,610
Rhode Island 561
Massachusetts 6,617
Vermont 147
New Hampshire 332
Maine 206
Alaska 166
Hawaii 392

Legend

0- 1,000	☐
1,001- 5,000	☐
5,001-10,000	▨
10,001-80,000	■
80,000+	■

The Number of Cuban Americans by State

Numbers Included Within States' Boundaries Are 1980 Census Counts of Cuban Americans

Source: Data from Census Report PC80-S1-7.

Statistical Profile of Cuban Americans

POPULATION

SIZE	1980	1985	1990
	803,226	993,920*	1,184,613*

GROWTH RATE 4.7%/Yr.

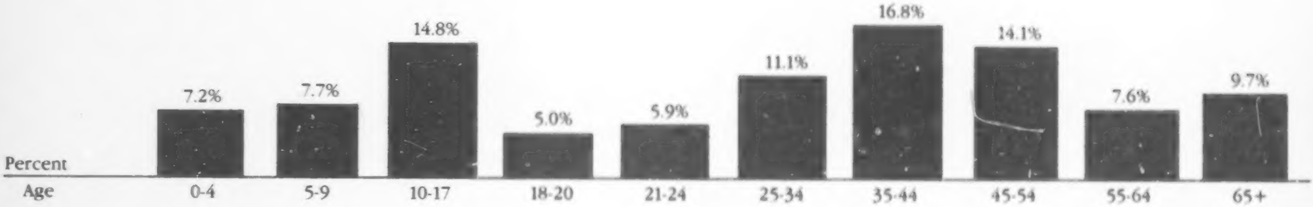
PERCENT OF TOTAL HISPANICS, 1980 5.5%

CONCENTRATION
(Percentage of Total Group Concentrated in Selected States)

Florida	58.5%
New Jersey	10.1%
New York	9.6%
California	7.6%
4 State Total	85.8%

AGE

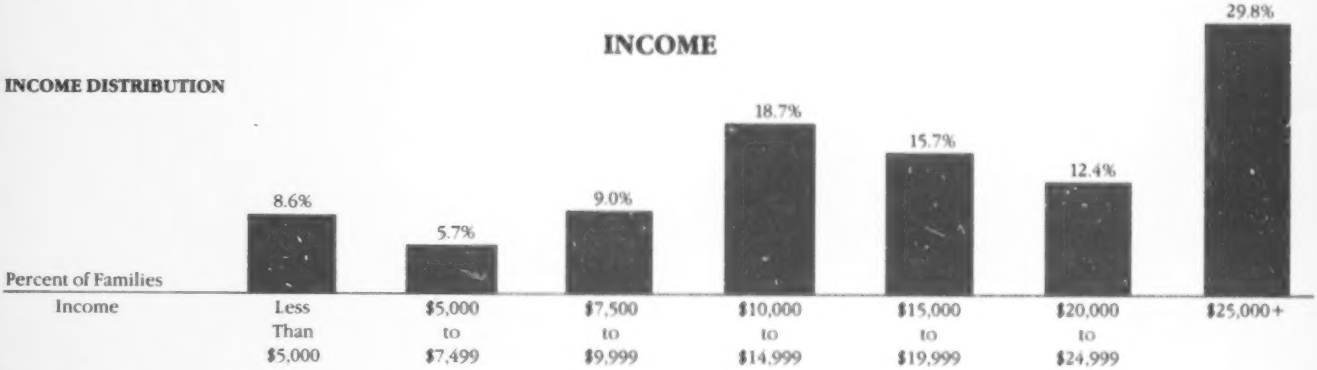
AGE DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN AGE 33.5 Years

INCOME

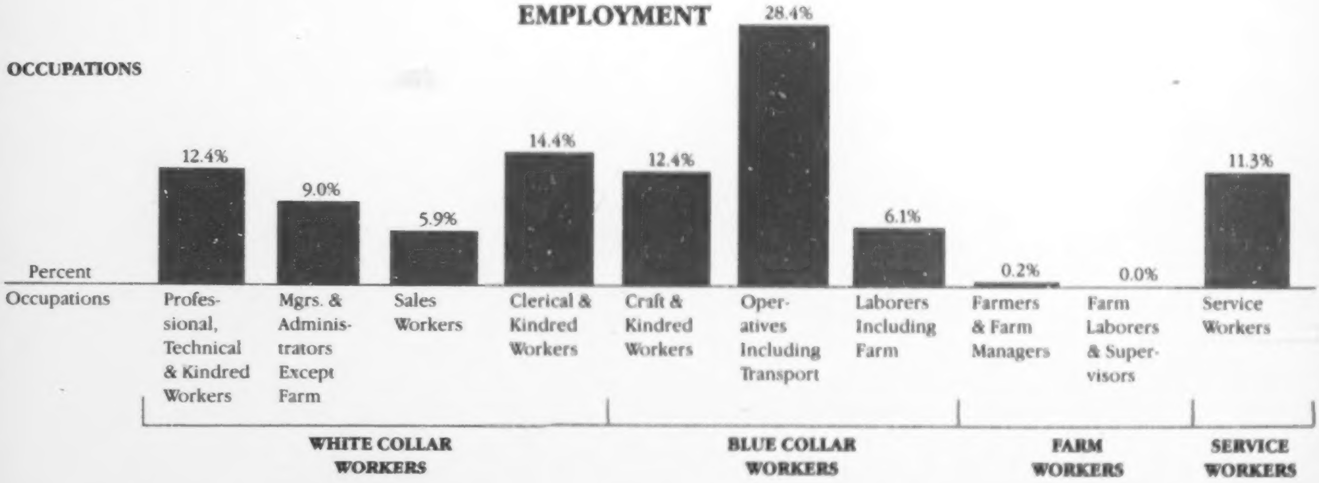
INCOME DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME $17,500/Yr. in 1979

EMPLOYMENT

OCCUPATIONS



Source: 1980 Census data unless denoted by an *, in which case generated by j projections.

Characteristics of Other Hispanics

Socioeconomic Status

Other Hispanics was originally assumed to be a minor category needed to classify Hispanics other than Puerto Ricans or those of Mexican or Cuban ancestry. That is, it was established for the classification of Hispanics from Central and South America, Spain and the Canary Islands. It was also designed to include *part-Hispanics* (i.e., the children of a marriage between a Hispanic and a non-Hispanic) and *mixed-Hispanics* (the offspring of marriages between members of Hispanic subgroupings).

The size of the Other Hispanics category is such that it presently ranks second among the major Hispanic subgroupings. Its varied composition, however, makes it difficult to consider as a single entity. As illustrated below, there are few identifiable patterns regarding this category.

Other Hispanics represents a newly-arrived as well as long-term resident population. The fact that this population is concentrated in states receiving substantial immigration (California, New York, Florida and Texas) confirms the general consensus regarding the concentration of the Latin American population. Other Hispanics are also a significant population group in New Mexico. Most observers, however, agree that the concentration of Latin Americans in this area is relatively small. The Other Hispanics in New Mexico appear to be long-term (five or more generations) residents who fail to identify with the label "Mexican," preferring the term *Hispano*. Since Other Hispanics is similar to this label, it would appear to be selected by preference.

While the age structure of the Other Hispanics reflects a youthful population, close examination shows a distinct pattern with relatively fewer children, fewer working-age (22-44 years) persons, and a higher proportion of elderly adults. Other Hispanics are also more likely to be white-collar workers than any other Hispanic subgroup and reflect the highest educational attainment as well.

The Other Hispanics category combines very disparate groupings. At least six of these groupings, however, can be distinguished.

Highly Skilled Latin American Immigrants. These young, skilled workers originate usually from South America or Costa Rica. College-educated and often trained in specialty areas (engineering, law, architecture, etc.) these immigrants find their country's local economy unable to absorb them into the job structure. They migrate to the United States in search of opportunities to utilize their training.

Refugee Professional Class. Well-trained like their counterparts above, these individuals, once employed in universities or government, are impelled to leave their native countries due to a change in political leadership. These exiles and refugees may have access to the job structure in the United States if they find a sympathetic support group upon arrival.

Central American Economic Refugees. These individuals, often from small towns in rural Nicaragua, Guatemala, and El Salvador, come to the United States seeking work. Their educational levels are lower. Should they find steady work, their presence in the United States is particularly felt in the service and operative occupations; should they fail to locate employment, their lives become a constant struggle for survival.

Part-Hispanics. "Part-Hispanics" are the children of a marriage between a Hispanic and a non-Hispanic. The "part-Hispanic" is normally a U.S.-born person whose Hispanic parent either has lived in the United States for a long period of time or is a well-educated immigrant from South America. The "part-Hispanic" has the advantage of understanding the U.S. system and possesses relatively easy access to alternatives for advancement.

Mixed-Hispanics. "Mixed-Hispanics" are the offspring of marriages between two members of different Hispanic subgroups. The "mixed-Hispanic" usually lives in a major metropolitan area where contact among Hispanic subgroups is possible. Some "mixed-Hispanics" are the offspring of couples with low socioeconomic status, while others result from marriages of middle or upper-class individuals who share commonalities other than their origin.

Hispanos in the Southwest. "Hispanos" are long-term residents of the Southwest whose origins are from Spanish and Mexican/Indian stock. Until the late 19th century this group lived in relative obscurity. Over time, "Hispanos" have acquired a unique identity which distinguishes them from the other Mexican-origin populations of the Southwest. They are likely to work in mining, agriculture, or related occupations, in stark contrast to the more urbanized populations found in the Other Hispanics category. Others are urban residents spanning the full spectrum of occupations. As a whole, "Hispanos" have an older age structure and contribute heavily to the elderly component found in the Other Hispanics category.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to generalize about the Other Hispanics category. The category is presently too all-encompassing, and the continued inflow of immigrants from Latin America, the trend of increased inter-ethnic marriage, and the political instability of some countries will merge an even greater diversity of individuals into this already amorphous category.

Concentration

The Other Hispanics category includes all Hispanics living in the 50 states other than Puerto Ricans and those of Mexican or Cuban ancestry. This group is less geographically concentrated than the other Hispanic subgroups; whereas the Mexican American, Cuban American, and Puerto Rican populations are highly concentrated in a few states, this is not so true of the Other Hispanics group. Overall, however, the group in 1980 was most greatly concentrated in the Northeastern and Southwestern United States.

Some 24.7 percent of the group was found to reside in California in 1980. New York followed with 18.3 percent. Thus, 43.0 percent lived in these two states, but the remainder of the population was more widely dispersed, although New Mexico, Florida, and Texas accounted for an additional 21.3 percent of the total. Thus, these five states in 1980 held 64.3 percent of all Other Hispanics.

Statistical Summary

Statistical Profile of Other Hispanics presents population, age, income, and employment data for the group. The population statistics show that there were 3,051,063 Other Hispanics in the United States in 1980, an increase of 19 percent from 1970 to 1980. A continuation of this relatively modest growth rate will yield a total group population of 3,339,163 in 1985 and 3,627,263 in 1990. In 1980 Other Hispanics represented 20.9 percent of all Hispanics living in the 50 states.

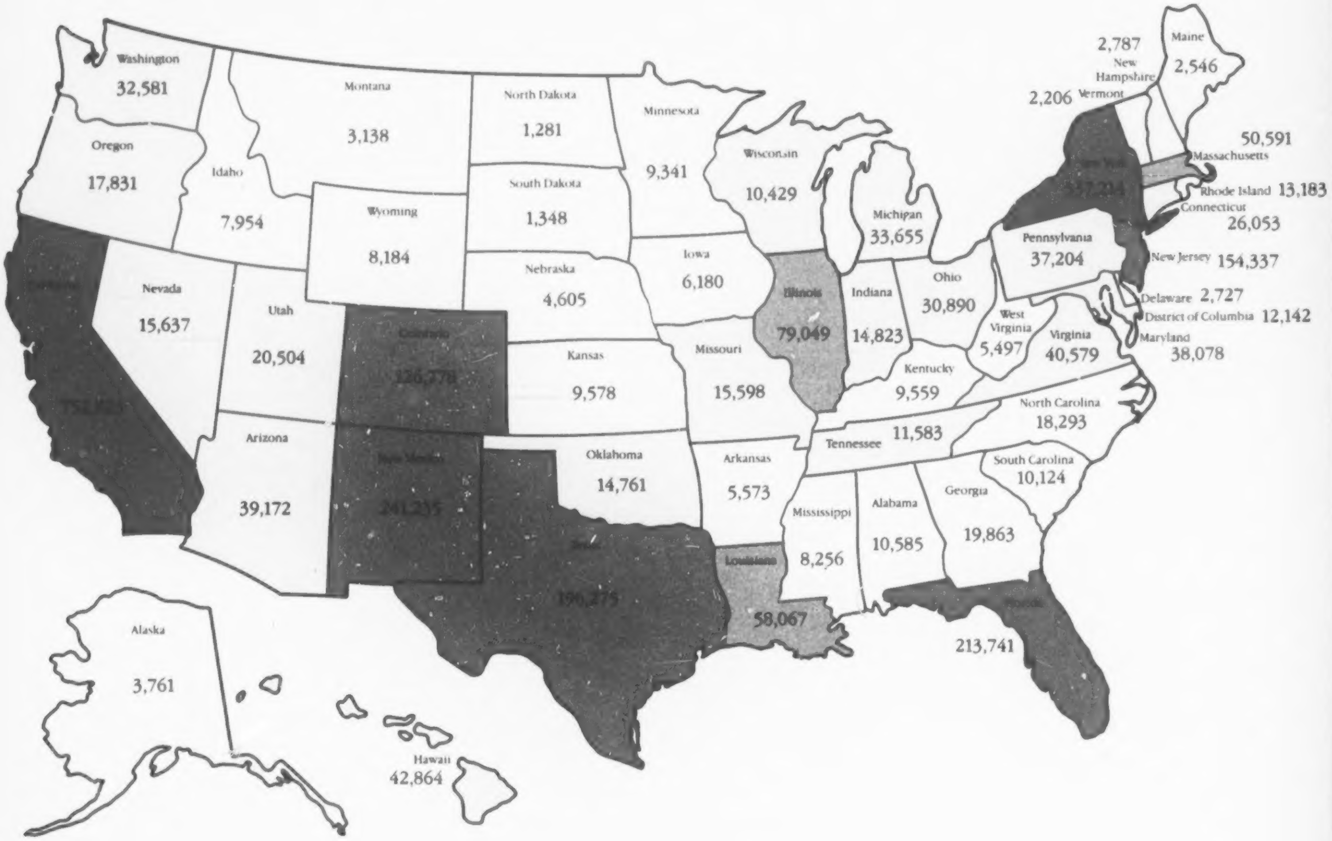
The Other Hispanics are a youthful population. Their median age is low, 23.3 years, compared to 30.1 for the total U.S. population; 67.3 percent of the group is under 35, compared to 57.6 percent under 35 for the total U.S. population.

The income level of Other Hispanics is slightly higher than that of Hispanics nationally. The median family income of the group in 1979 was $15,500 compared to $14,711; 28.1 percent of the group had annual family incomes under $10,000, 35.0 percent earned between $10,000 and $20,000, and 37.0 percent earned $20,000 or above.

Compared to the national averages, the occupational distribution of the Other Hispanics reflects lower concentrations in the white-collar and farm work categories and higher concentrations in the blue-collar and service occupations. Some 43.6 percent of the group works in white-collar occupations, 38.0 percent works in blue-collar jobs, 1.7 percent in farm occupations, and 16.6 percent in service positions.

Overall, the Other Hispanics population is youthful, is growing at a modest rate, and is lower-income and more blue-collar oriented than the total U.S. population.

Concentration of Other Hispanics in the United States


Washington
32,581
Oregon
17,831
California
752,525
Idaho
7,954
Nevada
15,637
Montana
3,138
Wyoming
8,184
Utah
20,504
Arizona
39,172
Colorado
126,778
New Mexico
241,235
North Dakota
1,281
South Dakota
1,348
Nebraska
4,605
Kansas
9,578
Oklahoma
14,761
Texas
190,275
Minnesota
9,341
Iowa
6,180
Missouri
15,598
Arkansas
5,573
Louisiana
58,067
Wisconsin
10,429
Illinois
79,049
Michigan
33,655
Indiana
14,823
Ohio
30,890
Kentucky
9,559
Tennessee
11,583
Mississippi
8,256
Alabama
10,585
Georgia
19,863
Florida
213,741
South Carolina
10,124
North Carolina
18,293
West Virginia
5,497
Virginia
40,579
Pennsylvania
37,204
New York
337,214
2,787
New Hampshire
Maine
2,546
2,206 Vermont
50,591
Massachusetts
Rhode Island 13,183
Connecticut
26,053
New Jersey 154,337
Delaware 2,727
District of Columbia 12,142
Maryland
38,078
Alaska
3,761
Hawaii
42,864

Legend

0- 10,000	□
10,001-50,000	□
50,001-100,000	▨
100,001-500,000	■
500,000+	■

The Number of "Other Hispanics" by State*

Numbers Included Within States' Boundaries Are 1980 Census Counts of the "Other Hispanics" Group

Source: Data from Census Report PC80-S1-7.

Note: "Other Hispanics" refers to all Hispanics other than Cuban Americans, Mexican Americans, and Puerto Ricans.

Statistical Profile of Other Hispanics

POPULATION

SIZE	1980	1985	1990
	3,051,063	3,339,163*	3,627,263*

GROWTH RATE 1.9%/Yr.

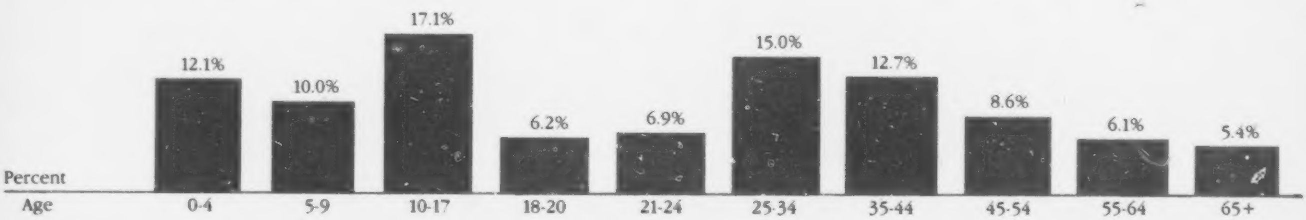
PERCENT OF TOTAL HISPANICS, 1980 20.9%

CONCENTRATION
(Percentage of Total Group Concentrated in Selected States)

State	Percent
California	24.7%
New York	18.3%
New Mexico	7.9%
Florida	7.0%
Texas	6.4%
5 State Total	64.3%

AGE

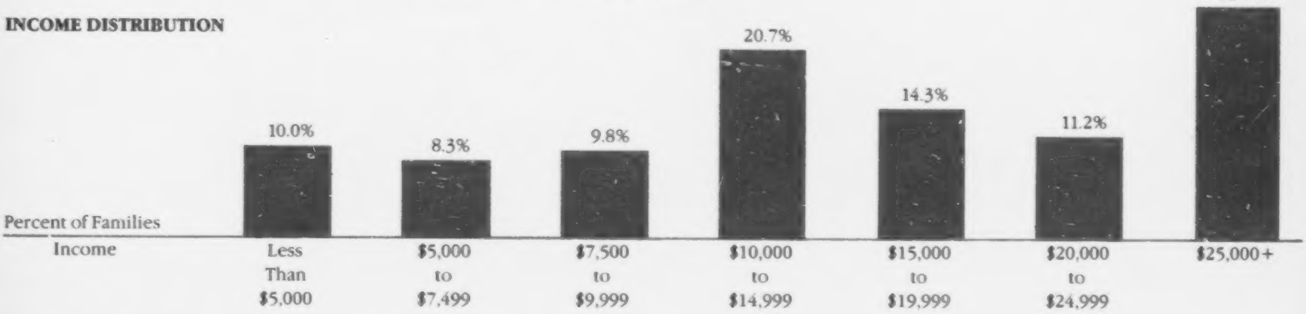
AGE DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN AGE 23.3 Years

INCOME

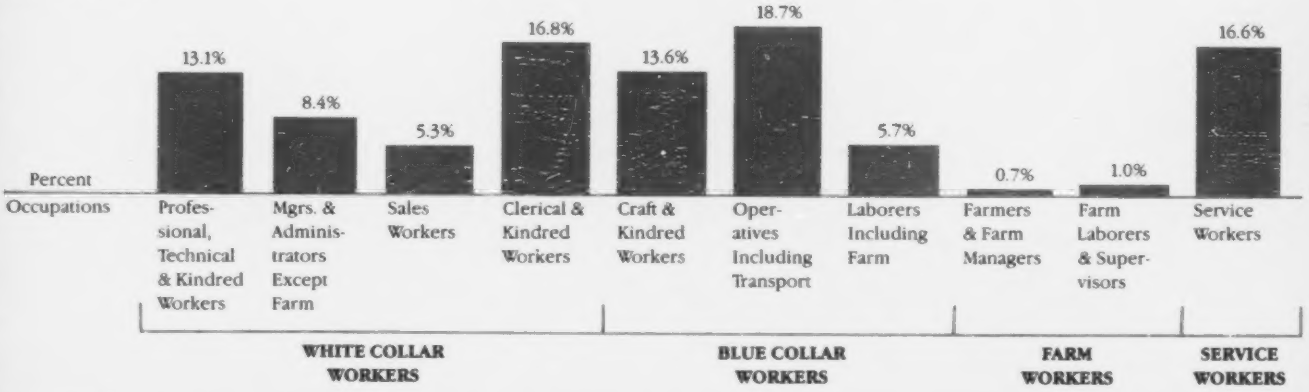
INCOME DISTRIBUTION



MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME $15,500/Year in 1979

EMPLOYMENT

OCCUPATIONS



Source: 1980 Census data unless denoted by an *, in which case generated by CTI projections.

Hispanics and Whites in Five Metropolitan Areas With the Highest Hispanic Population, 1980

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs)	Median Family Income	Persons Below Poverty Level	Labor Force Participation Rate	Population Employment Ratio	Unemployment Rate	Female Headed Households	25-Year-Olds With High School Education or More	Homeowners
Miami 1	R: #1	#1	#2	#1	#3	#1	#2	#2
	H: $16,133	15.9%	64.5%	60.2%	6.6%	14.8%	53.3%	46.3%
	W: $20,205	10.3%	59.6%	56.3%	4.8%	15.4%	67.5%	57.3%
San Antonio 2	R: #2	#2	#4	#3	#2	#3	#3	#1
	H: $13,284	26.9%	59.5%	54.9%	5.9%	18.7%	40.5%	60.2%
	W: $18,642	16.3%	61.2%	54.4%	4.2%	15.6%	64.2%	65.8%
Los Angeles 3	R: #3	#3	#2	#2	#4	#2	#5	#3
	H: $15,447	21.2%	67.6%	62.5%	7.5%	18.3%	39.9%	36.9%
	W: $23,404	9.8%	65.1%	61.6%	5.3%	17.3%	74.2%	52.0%
Chicago 4	R: #4	#4	#1	#4	#5	#4	#4	#5
	H: $16,557	19.5%	72.3%	61.6%	14.2%	19.5%	36.1%	31.1%
	W: $25,644	6.0%	66.3%	62.1%	5.2%	12.2%	68.8%	64.5%
New York 5	R: #5	#5	#5	#5	#1	#5	#1	#4
	H: $10,347	39.3%	52.1%	46.5%	3.5%	45.3%	66.1%	11.0%
	W: $23,208	11.0%	59.5%	56.3%	5.2%	17.5%	68.0%	36.6%

EXPLANATIONS:

SMSAS: Metropolitan areas are Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas designated by the U.S. Census Bureau. Areas are arranged from *Best*—showing the smallest White/Hispanic disparity—to *Worst*. Miami, Number 1, is *Best;* New York, Number 5, is *Worst*. Overall ranking of the areas is based on an average of the rankings on the eight socioeconomic indicators.

H: Hispanic

W: White. Because Hispanics can be of any race, Hispanics who identified as White in the Census are also included in the White figures for each SMSA.

R: Ranking. Area's individual ranking in that particular category. For example, New York is ranked first in parity in the percent of 25-year-olds with high school education or more, but is ranked fifth in parity in the percent of female-headed households.

Sources: Chicago Urban League, "A Perspective on the Socio-Economic Status of Chicago Area Blacks." A similar chart containing rankings for more cities appeared in the March 19, 1984, issue of the Hispanic Link Weekly Report.

Section Two:
Graphics,
"High School and Beyond"

Section Two: Graphics, "High School and Beyond"

This section contains statistical tables and graphs that directly support findings in Volume I. The data presented here are a small part of the data the Commission staff generated and analyzed from the "High School and Beyond" data base. For those who may wish to make additional analyses, the Hispanic Policy Development Project will make some of these data and analyses available on IBM and Apple computer diskettes as well as in hard copy.

"High School and Beyond" (HSB) is a national longitudinal survey of U.S. 1980 high school sophomores and seniors. Data on the students sampled in 1980 were also collected in 1982 and 1984 and will continue to be collected at two-year intervals. With these data, researchers are able to study the educational and occupational plans and activities of young people as they pass through the American educational system and take on their adult roles.

Questionnaires and cognitive tests were administered to each student in the sample. The student questionnaire covered school and work experiences, activities, attitudes, plans, selected background characteristics, and language proficiency.

The "High School and Beyond" survey design included a highly stratified national probability sample of over 1,100 high schools. About 30,000 sophomores and 28,000 seniors enrolled in 1,015 public and private high schools across the nation participated in the base year survey.

The HSB survey also contains an over-sampling of the Hispanic subgroups and additional questionnaire items for language minority students which allow for a more comprehensive investigation and analysis of the educational outcomes for Hispanic students. With the exception of an analysis of achievement test scores for Puerto Rican 1980 seniors, all data used in our analyses were derived from the survey of the Hispanic 1980 sophomore cohort in the base year and in the 1982 follow-up. Of special interest to the Commission were the students who dropped out of school between the two dates and were included in the follow-up.

The total sample size for the 1980 sophomores who were interviewed again in 1982 was 25,875 individuals. Of this total, 4,623 are Hispanics. The subsample of Hispanic 1980 sophomores who were interviewed again and were still in the same school in 1982 numbered 3,237. Hispanics who were interviewed again but were not attending school in 1982 numbered 865, or 18.7 percent of the 1980 sub-sample.

Because the commission staff was interested in studying the progress of students in the *same* school over a two-year period, the transfer students (332) and early graduates (190) are not included in the figures and statistics presented in this section, but they are included in the Hispanic total.

Out-of-School Rates in 1982 for 1980 Hispanic Sophomores, by Ethnic Origin†

	Percent Dropouts
Mexican American	21.15%
Puerto Rican	22.9%
Cuban American	19.4%
Other Hispanic	11.4%
Part Hispanic*	22.0%

Overall National Rates†

Hispanic	18.7%
Non-Hispanic Black	**17.1%**
Non-Hispanic White	**12.5%**
U.S. Average	**13.7%**

Out-of-School Rates in 1982 for 1980 Hispanic Sophomores, by Regions†

	Percent Dropouts
New England	9.8%
Middle Atlantic	19.1%
South Atlantic	20.5%
East South Central	18.0%
West South Central	19.3%
East North Central	17.2%
West North Central	13.4%
Mountain	19.6%
Pacific	19.8%

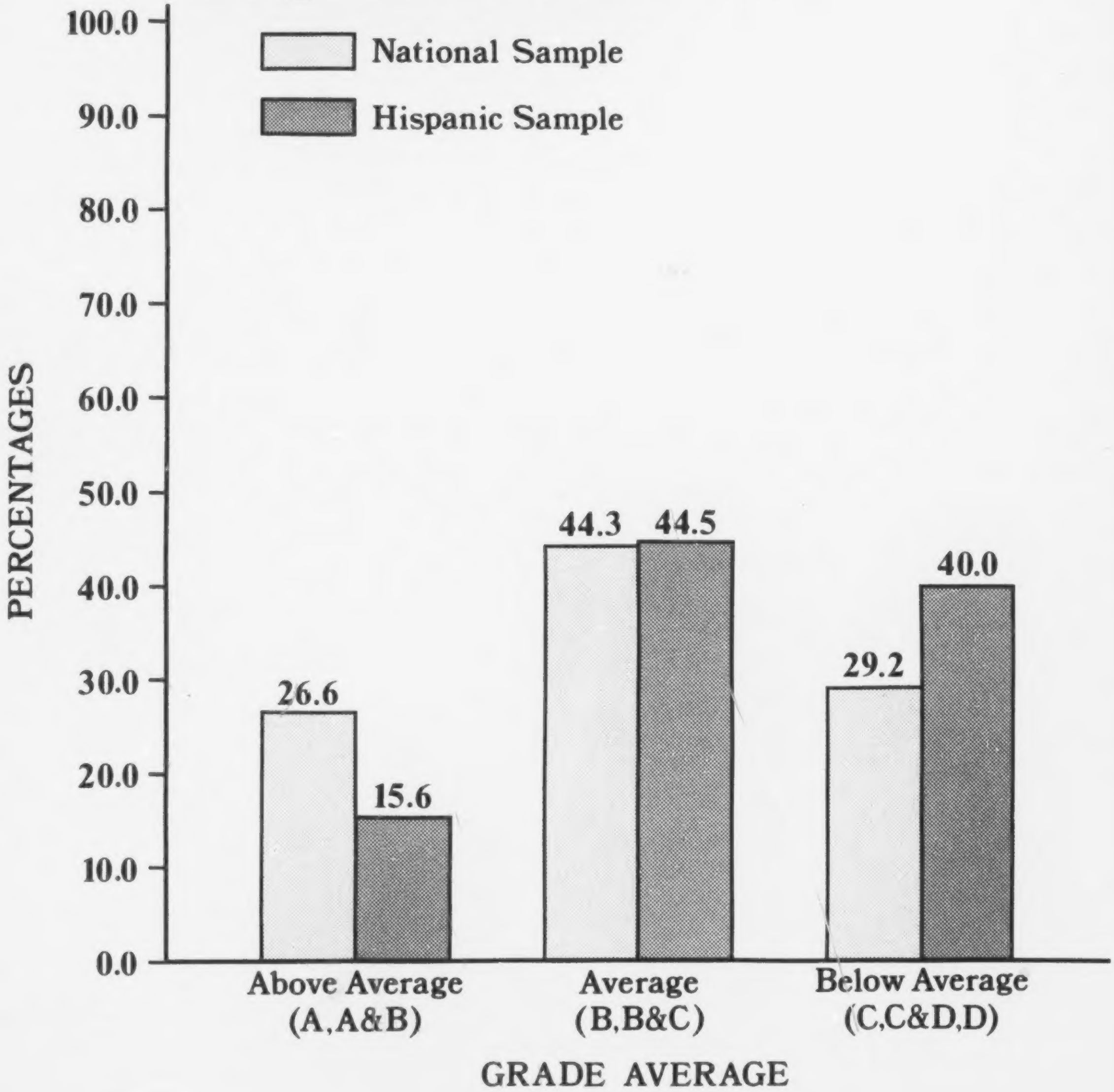
Census Regional Codes:

New England (Maine, N.H., Vt., Mass., R.I., Conn.)
Middle Atlantic (N.Y., N.J., Pa.)
South Atlantic (Del., Md., D.C., Va., W.Va., N.C., S.C., Ga., Fla.)
East South Central (Ky., Tenn., Ala., Miss.)
West South Central (Ark., La., Okla., Texas)
East North Central (Ohio, Ind., Ill., Mich., Wis.)
West North Central (Minn., Iowa, Mo., N.Dak., S.Dak., Nebr., Kans.)
Mountain (Mont., Idaho, Wyo., N.M., Ariz., Utah, Nev.)
Pacific (Wash., Ore., Calif., Alaska, Hawaii)

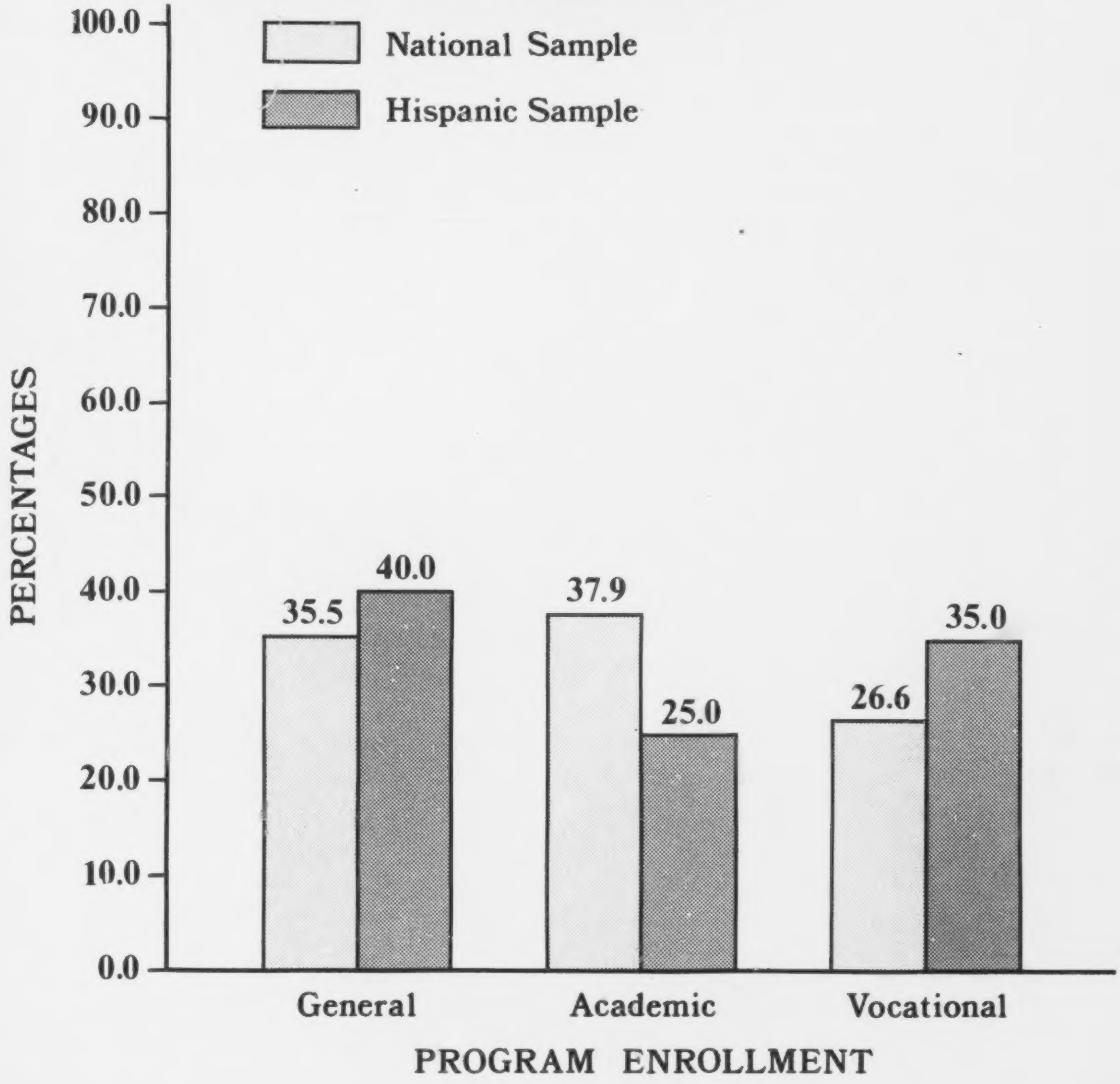
*Students who identified as Hispanic in either 1980 or 1982 but not on both occasions.

†These "out-of-school" rates *do not* include students who had left school before the spring semester of the 10th grade in 1980. *About 40 percent of all Hispanic dropouts leave school before the spring semester of the 10th grade.*

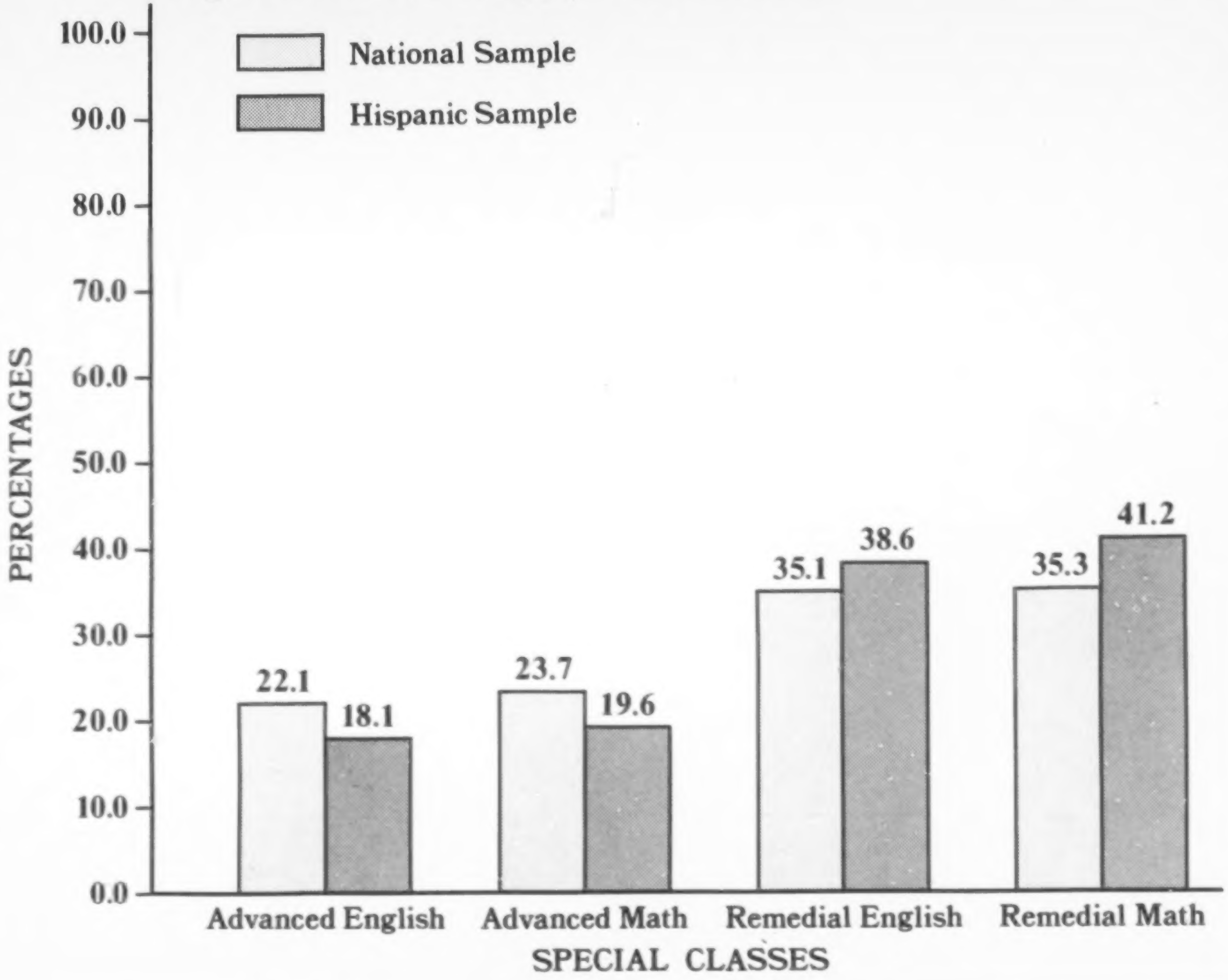
Self-Reported Grade Average: 1980 Sophomores in Sophomore Year



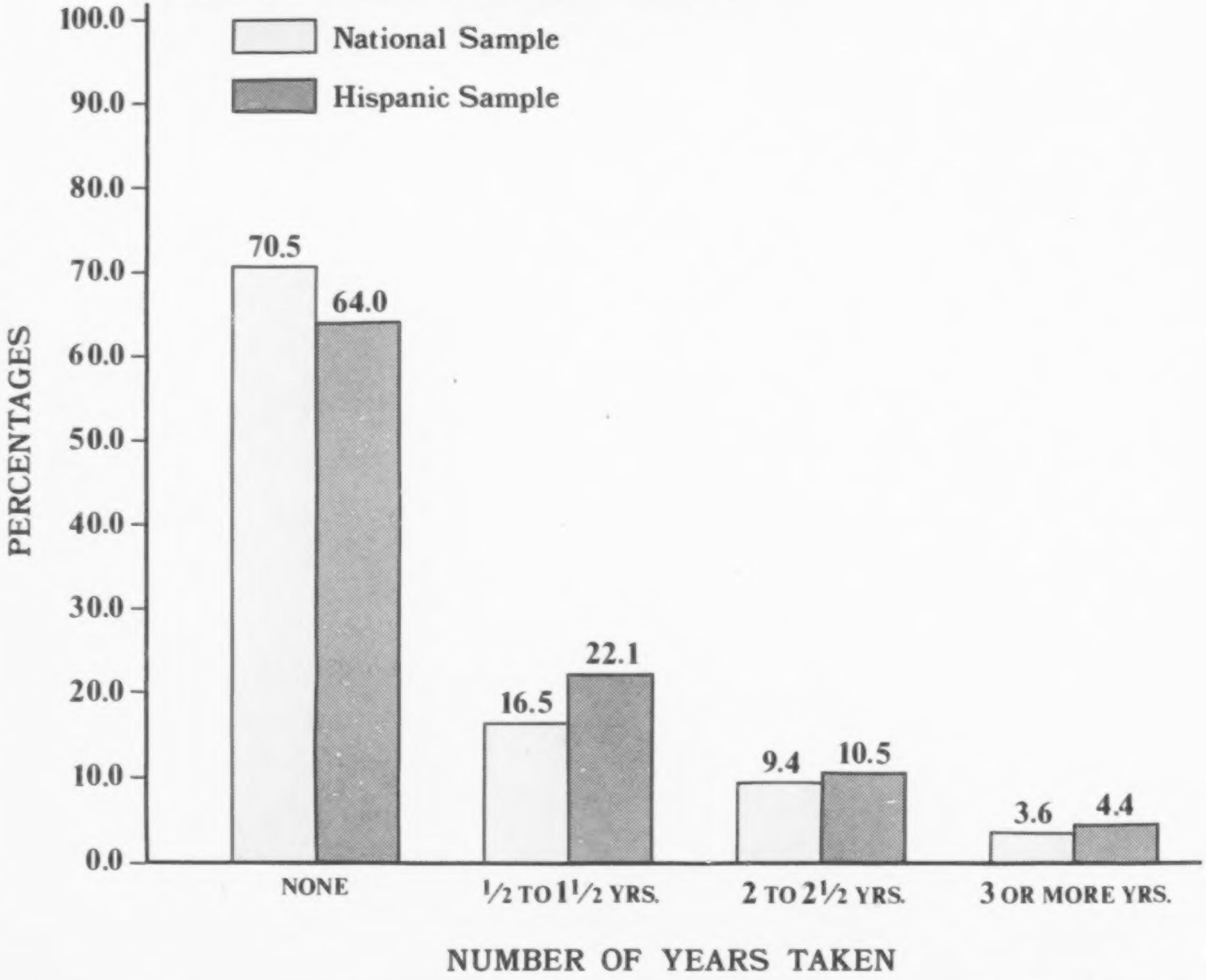
High School Program in 1982: 1980 Sophomores



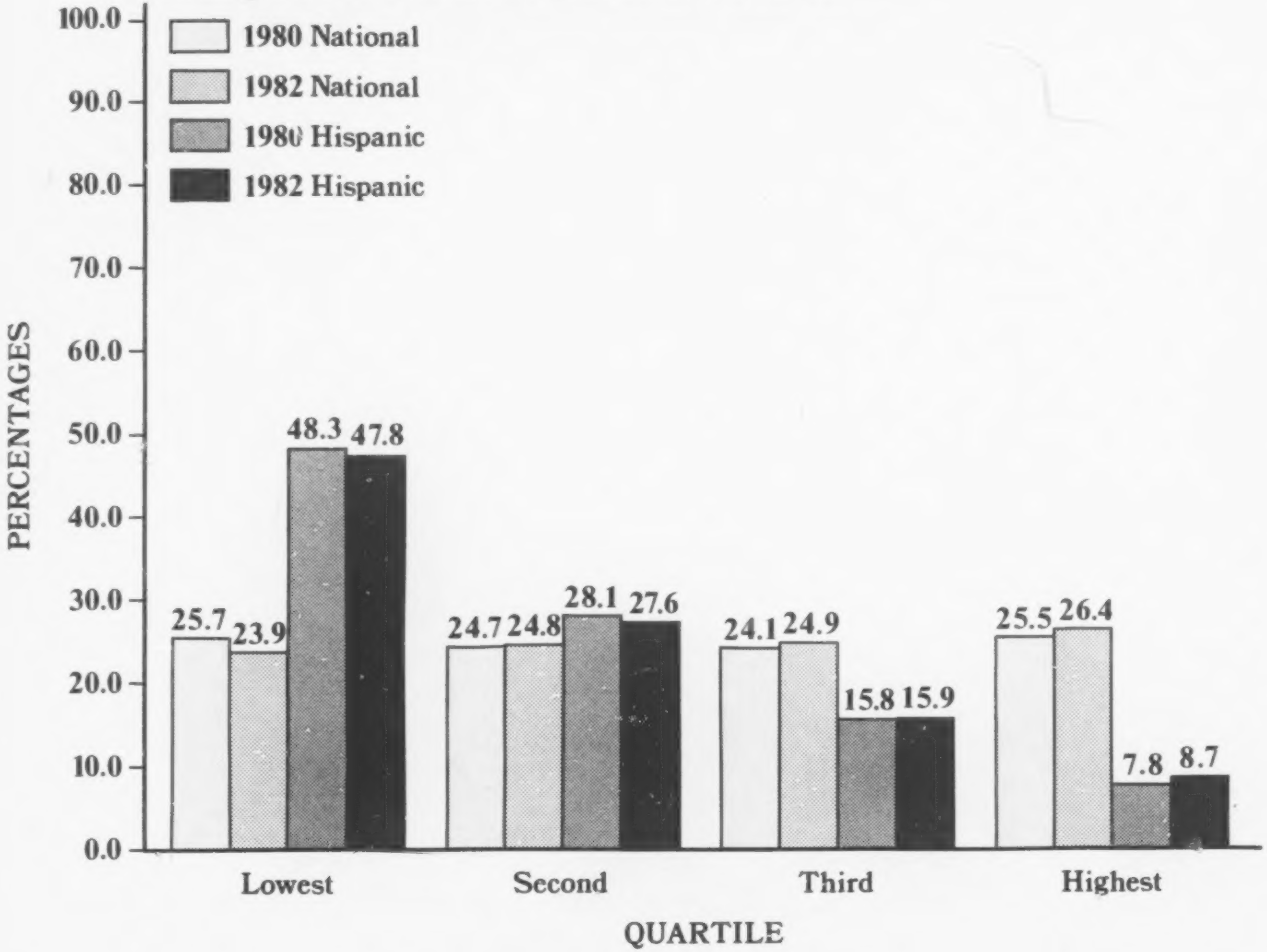
Enrollment in Special Programs: 1980 Sophomores, Sophomore Year



High School Coursework in Spanish: 1980 Sophomores



Trend Distributions of 1980, 1982: Composite Achievement Scores



Hispanic 1980 Sophomores: Average Achievement Test Scores

HSB Test	Norm	All 1980	All 1982	In-School 1980	In-School 1982	Out-of-School 1980	Out-of-School 1982
Vocabulary	50.00	44.17	40.93	44.81	42.48	45.16	35.21
Reading	50.00	44.56	41.65	45.04	43.09	42.30	36.72
Math 1	50.00	44.46	41.37	45.09	42.98	41.46	35.59
Math 2	50.00	46.02	42.47	46.55	43.91	44.09	38.11
Science	50.00	44.25	41.28	44.94	42.86	41.41	36.25
Writing	50.00	44.18	41.32	44.82	43.02	40.93	35.33
Civics	50.00	45.68	42.21	45.94	43.52	44.13	37.31

Notes:

The scores have been standardized to a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.
"Out-of-School 1980" refers to students who were still in school in 1980 but would not be in 1982.

This table pertains to Note 44 in Volume I, and relates to text on page 32 in Volume I.

Reasons Reported by Hispanic 1980 Sophomore Dropouts for Leaving High School, by Sex.

	Male		Female	
	National	Hispanic	**National**	Hispanic
School-Related				
Expelled or suspended	13	17	5	4
Had poor grades	36	34	30	32
School was not for me	35	25	31	24
School ground too dangerous	3	1	2	3
Didn't get into desired program	8	7	5	5
Couldn't get along with teachers	21	17	10	12
Family-Related				
Married or plan to	7	10	31	33
Was pregnant	N/A	N/A	24	25
Had to support family	13	17	8	11
Peer-Related				
Friends were dropping out	7	3	2	3
Couldn't get along with students	5	7	6	6
Health-Related				
Illness or disability	5	2	7	6
Other				
Offered a job and chose to work	27	26	11	13
Wanted to enter military	7	4	1	1
Moved too far from school	2	3	5	2
Wanted to travel	7	3	7	6

Notes:

All figures given in percentages.
Student could report more than one reason.
Percentages have been rounded off to nearest whole number.

This table pertains to Notes 25, 57, and 58 in Volume I, and relates to text on pages 23 and 35 in Volume I.

Reasons Reported by Hispanic 1980 Sophomore Dropouts For Leaving High School, by Regions

	National Out-of-School	Hispanic Out-of-School	Regions				
			1	2	3	4	5
School-Related							
Expelled or suspended	9	11	13	12	10	16	7
Has poor grades, not doing well	33	33	27	26	35	38	35
School was not for me	33	25	29	23	20	22	28
School ground too dangerous	2	2	3	5	0.3	0.3	1
Didn't get into desired program	6	6	10	6	7	3	6
Couldn't get along with teachers	15	15	24	17	11	16	10
Family-Related							
Married or plan to be	18	20	17	20	20	25	20
Was pregnant (females only)	N/A	25	21	16	22	46	29
Had to support my family	11	14	21	13	13	6	17
Peer-Related							
Friends were dropping out	5	3	2	4	2	4	5
Couldn't get along with students	6	6	5	5	5	5	7
Health-Related							
Illness or disability	5	4	6	5	3	4	3
Other							
Was offered a job, chose to work	19	20	25	26	24	3	16
Wanted to enter military	4	2	4	3	1	1	3
Moved too far from school	4	4	3	7	2	0	5
Wanted to travel	7	3	4	0	2	8	6

Note:

Student could report more than one reason.

Percentages have been rounded-off to nearest whole number.

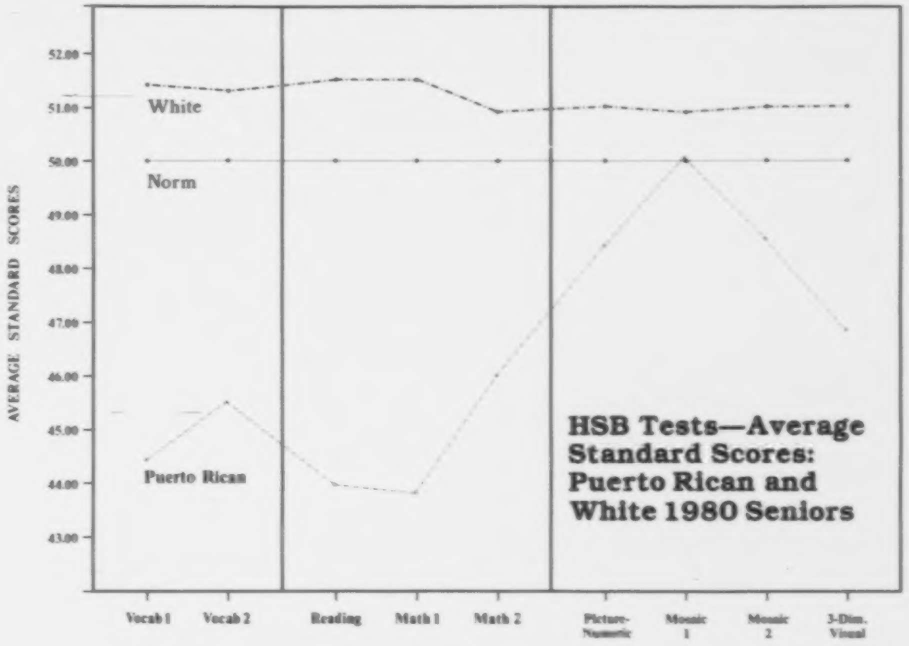
Percentages for the figures on pregnancy were calculated using only the females in total Hispanic sample.

Regional codes:

1. Middle Atlantic (N.Y., N.J., Pa.)
2. South Atlantic (Fla., Del., Md., D.C., Va., W.Va., N.C.)
3. West South Central (Texas, Ark., Okla., La.)
4. East North Central (Wis., Ill., Ind., Ohio, Mich.)
5. Pacific (Calif., Wash., Ore., Alaska, Hawaii)

Figures given are percentages.

This table pertains to Notes 25, 57, and 58 in Volume I, and relates to text on pages 23 and 35 in Volume I.



HSB Tests—Average Standard Scores: Puerto Rican and White 1980 Seniors

Note:
School Related Subjects include: Reading, Mathematics 1, Mathematics 2.
School Non-Related Subjects include: Picture-Numeric, Mosaic 1, Mosaic 2, Three Dimensional Visualization.
The Vocabulary 1 and Vocabulary 2 are considered both school related and non-school related tests.
For further explanation see accompanying table.

Standardized Scores on Assessment Areas: Puerto Rican and White 1980 Seniors, Spring 1980.

HSB Tests	Norm	White Sample	Puerto Rican Sample
Vocabulary 1	50.00	51.40	44.42
Vocabulary 2	50.00	51.30	45.54
Reading	50.00	51.50	44.00
Mathematics 1	50.00	51.50	43.84
Mathematics 2	50.00	50.90	46.03
Picture-Numeric	50.00	51.00	48.48
Mosaic 1	50.00	50.90	50.10
Mosaic 2	50.00	51.00	48.57
3 Dimensional Visualization	50.00	51.00	46.86

For an explanation of what the individual HSB tests measure, as well as a discussion on how these tests can be related to a "continuum ranging from school areas, which may be called 'subject-matter proficiency,' to the non-school areas, termed 'analytic or fluid ability'," see pages 11 through 13 in Ellis B. Page and Timothy Z. Keith, "Effects of U.S. Private Schools: A Technical Analysis of Two Recent Claims," *Educational Researcher*, August/September, 1981, pp. 7-17.

This table pertains to Note 45 in Volume I, and relates to text on page 32 in Volume I.

Section Three: Reflections

Section Three: Reflections

The essays and reports in this section were commissioned either by the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics or by its sponsor, the Hispanic Policy Development Project. Most of the authors convey reflections and prescriptions based on what they have learned from personal observations and reviews of research and practice. Two of the readings are based on fresh research.

School reform is the general theme for the first two selections. In **Making Good Schools From Bad**, Frank Montalvo reflects on his personal and professional experiences as a consultant for the Ford Foundation's High School Recognition Program. Peter D. Roos, an attorney long involved in Hispanic and language minority issues, delineates in his **Equity and Excellence** the tensions between traditional views of equality and some of the concepts of quality that are popular with the current education reform movement.

The world of work is the general theme for the next two papers—both mentioned in the **Work and School** section of Volume I of this report. The Gary Walker paper, **Hispanic Youth Employment: Some Lessons and Models for Business Involvement**, demonstrates how successful business involvement in youth employment is linked to the activities of local public and non-profit institutions. As Walker points out, these agencies provide funding, out-reach, support services, counseling, employment screening, education, and other activities that business usually is not organized or suited to provide. In **Hispanics in Fast Food Jobs**, Ivan Charner and Bryna Shore Fraser report on how Hispanic youth are faring in the fast food industry. What they found is surprising and reveals a strong work ethic among many young Hispanics. Walker is a member of the New York consulting firm, Grinker, Walker and Associates. Fraser is Senior Associate, National Institute for Work and Learning, in Washington, D.C.; Charner is the Institute's Director of Research.

The Charner and Fraser selection and the next one—by Hyung C. Chung and Saúl Sibirsky—are the products of a policy research competition on the subject of the school-to-work transition that the Hispanic Policy Development Project conducted during the 1983-84 academic year. The Chung and Sibirsky selection is actually the executive summary of their study, **Programs for Adolescent Hispanic Parents in Connecticut.** While the ramifications of Black and White teenage pregnancy are increasingly commanding the attention of the media and of policymakers, Hispanic teenage pregnancy has received scant attention. Their full study is one of the first on this topic. Dr. Chung is Professor of Economics and Director of the Urban Management Institute at the University of Bridgeport. Dr. Sibirsky is Bilingual Education Consultant at the Connecticut State Department of Education.

Public policy makers and other decision makers are becoming increasingly aware of Hispanic concerns in education. Problems such as high dropout rates and language minority issues are receiving media attention in city after city. However, policy analysts and informed citizens are often hampered in their proposals for remedy by inconsistent definitions for terms such as dropouts, by the hodge-podge of available data, and by a lack of information about relatively reliable sources of data. With these points in mind, Dorothy Waggoner was commissioned to write **Suggested Plan for Reviewing the Status of Data for Monitoring the Progress and Outcomes of Secondary Schooling for Hispanics.** Her paper should be useful to analysts and researchers interested in Hispanic education. Waggoner is a private consultant on language minority statistics and bilingual education. Prior to her retirement from the U.S. Department of Education, she was associated with the Department's language minority statistical program and served as information specialist in its Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.

Note: These papers do not necessarily reflect the views of the Hispanic Policy Development Project or the National Commission on Secondary Schooling for Hispanics.

Making Good Schools From Bad

Frank Montalvo

My contribution to this Commission is not as a school teacher or an administrator who has struggled with scarce resources, public opinion, or the demands of district standards that do not always consider the needs of a diversified urban school population.

Rather, my point of view is that, first, of an individual who himself—as others before me and after me—is representative of the few Hispanics who have "made it." Who made it through a rather complex, demanding, and often alien labyrinth called our American educational system. Made it at some personal cost to himself, to his family of origin, and to his cultural heritage as a first-generation college graduate. Nevertheless, made it to enjoy the fruits of a successful professional career and a satisfying family life, to see his four children enter college, and to see three, so far, graduate. The Montalvos began in this country as a short-order cook and a seamstress, and will soon be represented in academia, social work, medicine, business and in the arts. But I never stop wondering why we "made it" when others in my neighborhood didn't.

Also, my point of view is that of a professional social worker who has witnessed too many Hispanic casualties on welfare rolls, in correctional facilities, and in mental health clinics, whose lives were short-circuited, mis-spent, or misappropriated too early at their own hands or at the hands of others. Teenage pregnancy, few job skills, unemployment, early involvements with drugs, gangs, violence, and a vicious cycle of poverty that breeds more poverty—these are among the familiar social costs often associated with a history of low achievement, absenteeism, and dropping out of school. There is no single cause or solution to the problem which includes the mutually reinforcing environments of home, community, and school. And unraveling the riddle involves our attention to all three.

Hispanic parents value education, want to help

Typically, adolescents in high school are in the throes of searching for an identity related to their past and at the same time are struggling to initiate a connection with and a vision of the future that many of their parents cannot provide. Few Hispanic parents who have not completed school themselves can advise and guide their children through high school—can advise them on what courses to take, how to prepare their lessons, what occupations to strive for, and what is required for college entrance and success. They now share with other parents the uncertainty of a rapidly changing economy that trumpets over and over that their child's future security rests on their preparing their child to become "computer literate," when many of them suffer the public shame of being considered "functionally illiterate." Communicating in the language of education and achievement is difficult enough. Now there is a new discourse that they are told they have to learn. I have been told that 75 percent of future jobs will be computer-related. Hispanic parents see on television that three-year-olds are playing with keyboards, that grade school children solve their math problems on home terminals, and that college students drop out of college because their parents didn't provide them with computers. What is the message that Hispanic parents are receiving about their role and responsibility to help their children succeed?

I recently had the unpleasant experience of observing and then helping a parent to buy a computer keyboard that recently was put on sale. All she cared about was that it was affordable, $49.95 plus tax, and that it would help her son get through school. She had seen the television commercials and she did not want her son to fail. She was suspicious of the salesman who spoke of all the peripheral equipment that would be needed at additional cost. "That can come later," she explained to me in Spanish as she held in her hands what she felt was her son's future.

I use this example, if somewhat dramatic, to illustrate the point that Hispanic parents do value education highly and will sacrifice to see that their children achieve in school, even when the requirements to succeed appear alien to them and when they are not sure what is required of them.

Hispanic families—a resource for schools

I believe that the role of the Hispanic family is very important in securing the success of the child in high school, and that, while Hispanic parents value education, they need help in operationalizing that value in terms of how they can contribute to their children's education. Middle-class parents know how to do this. They can articulate the school's short-comings, the ingredients of a good education, the steps they have to take to supplement their children's education, and even what attitudes and values can be contested as not being in the best interest of the child's development. These are knowledge and skills not readily available to many parents in Hispanic communities, but that I believe have a good deal to do with achievement. Also, and more than parenthetically, I should add that the family is a highly valued institution in the Hispanic community, and that it behooves the school to capitalize on this resource.

The challenge the school has is to de-alienize its environment by reducing the social and cultural discontinuities between home and school. I also realize that some schools can succeed without extensive parental involvement, but I suspect that when they don't succeed, the home-school connection is missing.

The purpose of the Ford Foundation program [the High School Recognition Program] was to recognize and reward those inner city schools that were making a clear effort to improve the climate and quality of education, that were, as an April 25, 1983, *Time* magazine article said, stirring new hope in the ghettoes.

Of the ten high schools that I visited in Austin and in Los Angeles, the schools succeeding best in their efforts to improve the education of minority children all made strong and extensive efforts not only to involve parents in the decisions and operations of the school but also provided them with instruction and training for their role as parents of high schoolers. This was especially characteristic of the three schools I visited that eventually received $20,000 grants from the Ford Foundation. They were cognizant of the cultural and social discontinuities that might exist between home and school and made special efforts to bridge them. I visited the "Family Room" in one school, a classroom refurnished as a living room, where parents met for committee meetings and from which they conducted their school volunteer activities. It was a tangible and institutionalized link between school and home that not only facilitated their entry into the system but symbolized the value that the school placed on their contribution. The other characteristic that I noticed was the extent to which efforts were made to seek parent leadership in neighborhood networks in an effort to insure ethnic and area representation. The emphasis was on small group meetings, rather than assembling all the parents at once, and attendance and formal membership was de-emphasized. At one, there was an intentional effort to blur the boundaries between school, home, and community by utilizing the high school parents' groups to dispense cheese and commodities being provided by a local social agency. These groups were especially important to the agency because they were composed of white, black, and Hispanic parents in a community that was undergoing ethnic and racial transition.

What also seemed important to me was the model of cooperation that the parents provided for the children, and the reinforcement that their parents' valued role in school gave the children's self-image. It may be obvious that the greater the discontinuity between home and school, the more the children will perceive the educational environment as alien. But some schools seemed too quick to accept a perception that Hispanic and minority parents are too busy, too overworked, too uncomfortable, or too intimidated to participate, without asking how the school can become less structured and less formal and more consistent with the lifestyle of "busy, overworked, uncomfortable, or intimidated" parents. Again, parenthetically, personalized relationships are highly valued in the Hispanic community.

It is up to the school to build the bridge to the home and community, and the school should be open to the parents' influence, just as the school hopes to influence the parents' values concerning their children's education. The value of education exists in the Hispanic community, but what is needed is the sense that it is *our* school, for *our* children, whether they are capable of being cosmetologists or astronauts.

Schools as safe havens, not prisons

Still, while the schools I visited provided bridges to the home, they also created a safe haven for students. A bridge over troubled waters, if you will.

In marked contrast to some of the communities in which they were located, the award-winning schools had climates of order and purpose, with more interpersonal harmony than most of us expected to find. There was also an increased and focused approach to teaching, an emphasis on basic skills, and a balanced concern with both vocational and academic students.

Nevertheless, the first order of business for these schools was to provide for the safety of students and teachers. In some, the school's perimeter was fenced and monitored by security personnel, and the school principal and teachers welcomed the students to school and were visible. In another, the police circled the area in the morning, and the halls were monitored by the staff to prevent loitering. All such efforts were made to secure the school for teaching and learning. Attendance in school and in class was a priority concern, and extensive efforts were made to locate students and to inform parents immediately if students were absent. And through the leadership of the principals and staff, the parents quickly got the message that the school was functioning well and was safe for their children. Once that took place, the parents became more involved and, together with the staff, began expecting more from the school, the students, and themselves.

Needless to say, it is expensive in time and money to secure a school without creating the atmosphere of a prison. It requires the training of security personnel to relate to students with respect and courtesy, and simultaneously to convey to the students the respect that the principal and faculty have for the security personnel (as well as for custodial personnel and food handlers). This is not a small matter, as one principal pointed out to me. It is not a small matter when most of the personnel come from the same community as the students, when some of the students themselves will seek employment in these fields, and when the school is trying to convey to the students the personal worth of people irrespective of their position and salary. I think a school attentive to such details in the students' lives also encourages them to stay in school. It requires a staff that realizes what feeling inferior means to the educational development of minority children. Respect, respeto, for the dignity of the individual is of prime concern to Hispanics.

Teachers and principals

It was repeatedly emphasized at these schools that many teachers are not prepared to teach students from diversified backgrounds. Such teachers, who were insensitive to students' special needs and to their individual pace, who were unwilling to extend themselves beyond the classroom and to modify and improve their approach to teaching, had to leave.

One school, among the highest rated in the Ford Program, had replaced 85 percent of its teachers. This required autonomy on the part of the principal and support and commitment on the part of the district administration to withstand the political flak that followed. What was equally impressive to me was that once the district had learned that the school was serious about improving the standard of education for its 98-percent minority student body, the school was flooded with requests from teachers for transfers to the school. For many teachers, teaching remains a calling and a challenge. But they have to be convinced that the community and the central administration value the education of minority children, and are willing to back it up with money and resources.

But with or without resources, it was evident that the successful schools looked to themselves to improve the quality of instruction, that they had to expect more from themselves in order to expect more from their students. Teachers had to turn in lesson plans to the principals every week; the principals, in turn, had to become instructional as well as administrative leaders. They had to review and discuss area-wide test scores and how math and language arts can be improved in all the courses taught. They had to plan for and demand, if necessary, workshops to renew their teaching skills. They had to institute programs for advanced students in math, science, and biology in order to stretch student expectations, no matter how small the classes were initially. At the same time they had to spend time initiating "adopt a school" projects with the business and public service communities in order to enrich the program and to meet the special employment and training needs of other students. They had to involve students, parents, and themselves in improving the physical facilities, which mean so much to students and their pride in the school. They had to devise ways of keeping unwed mothers and fathers as well as juvenile probationers in school. And somehow they had to keep trying, because their trying meant that the kids would know that they cared, and the students would care about their education in return.

Evidence of "caring"

To the students I talked with, it was the teachers' caring what they did with their lives that was most important, and the students were willing, in turn, to abide by dress codes and attendance standards, and to stay in school and extend themselves.

For students, "caring" was operationalized by the school and the teachers in arrangements for morning and afternoon tutoring by teachers or by other students, by counselors helping them with personal and family problems, by evidence of their cultural heritage displayed and discussed in class, by arrangements to secure the school and keep it clean and in repair, by expecting them to attend class, and by encouraging them to see beyond their own world view.

My sense was that "caring" had been institutionalized, in sociological terms, as a value in the school and not solely an accidental relationship between a teacher and a lucky student. I recalled how lucky I had felt in my own life that certain adults took a special interest in me and advised me in ways my parents couldn't. These students were telling me that in a good school caring was less a matter of chance and that it was a teaching skill that was valued.

In addition to building a bridge to the homes, the award-winning schools I visited established extensive relationships with the future through the involvement of the business, public service, and post-secondary educational communities. For many students in a diversified city high school, school becomes irrelevant without tangible connections with the world of work and—for many—the opportunity to earn money while attending school. For others there is a need to learn the social skills of obtaining and keeping jobs. Still others are awakened to the possibility of going to college. Local industries, colleges, hospitals, and civic governments had volunteered technical assistance and instruction to these award-winning schools, as well as equipment, apprenticeships, training, and scholarships and loans, and in general had provided the knowledge and experience that went beyond what the home and the school could provide.

I emphasize these bridges the schools must build to the past and the future and the services they must provide to urban student bodies because these bridges and services are often considered ancillary and peripheral to the basic task of classroom teaching. It is unfair to expect most Hispanic families to advise their children about the intricacies of choosing a college, to provide for their computer literacy, and to connect them with a job or a position in a firm. It *is* fair to expect these parents to support the schools' efforts to educate their children. Material resources are required that are based on the needs of inner city schools and that go beyond parity with suburban schools. Our schools need modern technology, good physical plants, and the most competent teachers. This is a truism, but not the whole truth.

The schools I visited were highly successful: not by absolute standards of achievement on state and national tests, nor by attendance records, nor by merit scholars, nor by having the best football teams. They were recognized for improving the quality of instruction, for raising expectations, for instilling hope and pride in their students and their families, and for measuring success in terms of individual accomplishment. They were turning things around because they understand that schools are also people, they are family.

Some say that high school is too late, that the taste of success should begin earlier. This may be true. But I also know that for many Hispanic children, high school is the last chance that they have. And many of them in the schools I visited were making the most of it.

Equity and Excellence

Peter D. Roos

Virtually every educational report which has been issued in the past year has sought to assure us that there is "no conflict between quality and equality." If the mechanical recitation of this cant is not enough to make one suspicious, a perusal of the commonly proposed recommendations quickly informs us why the authors of these reports feel compelled to make this requisite disclaimer. First, a number of the proposals run directly counter to positions long held by advocates of equality. Amongst these are included a heightened reliance on standardized testing, tightened discipline (often with a call for a reduced emphasis on Due Process), and a stated preference for non-bilingual means of teaching English to limited English proficient students. Although these direct conflicts with positions of minority advocates raise conflict enough, the possible implications of other proposals pose problems of potentially greater concern. An outstanding example is the common proposal that the high school curriculum be made more rigorous and that diplomas be withheld from all who fail to meet these higher standards. Though racially neutral, this proposal has the potential to devastate the already low graduation statistics of Hispanics and Blacks who frequently are unable to handle the present less rigorous curriculum.

It is not the purpose of this paper to judge the wisdom of these and other proposals; ... rather, the purpose is to preliminarily evaluate some of the more common recommendations or educational "solutions" being proposed with an eye toward their impact on Hispanic and other minority students, and to suggest, where appropriate, possible legal ramifications. While the utility of each or all of the proposals ... may well justify adoption, no one should be ignorant of the fact that most of the proposals currently under consideration pose a considerable tension between traditional views of equality and the proposed concepts of quality.

Accountability Through Testing— Issue Number 1

Virtually every report that has criticized the educational system has concluded in one form or another that students are passing through the system on to graduation without acquiring the skills expected at the appropriate level. A fairly common response, whether suggested by the reports or by concerned legislatures, is to create "gates" at certain levels which can be entered only by earning a passing score on an examination. Frequently these examinations are standardized achievement tests created for this specific purpose.

Predictably, Hispanic students are failing those examinations at a higher rate than Anglo students. This means that these students are frequently held back in greater numbers than their Anglo counterparts; more seriously, it means that these students are being denied diplomas in greater numbers and percentages than Anglos.

This disparity in numbers, while certainly raising policy questions, does not, *by itself*, have legal implications; however, if the disparity can be traced to either (a) discriminatory practices of the school district[1] or (b) bias in the test,[2] grave legal questions are raised. The most common discriminatory practices that might be implicated include *de jure* (intentional) segregation, failure to implement a legally sufficient language assistance program,[3] or the use of an otherwise lawful tracking system which becomes a dead end and which therefore denies students access to the curriculum needed to pass the examination. This latter practice, discussed in more detail in the next section, is one which may cast a legal shadow over even the most well-meaning program—one in which the accountability system envisions a remedial program to overcome educational deficits.

The New Tracking— Issue Number 2

Despite the call in several of the recent studies for an end to tracking,[4] a number of factors are pushing school districts and legislatures in the opposite direction. It seems fair to assume that the immediate future is likely to bring greater ethnic and socioeconomic segregation through tracking than that presently existing.

The first factor of immediate relevance was touched on above. More specifically, failure by poor and minority children to pass the "gate" tests will frequently be accompanied by their reference to a remedial track. Of itself this might not be a bad thing (certainly one could not in good conscience accept an accountability scheme that did not include a remedial component); however, history warns us that these "remedial" tracks often end up as leveled programs that merely set a lower standard for participants rather than remediating their needs with the end of returning them to a fully competitive position. A number of legal precedents suggest that should this occur, it violates the law as well as logic. These precedents include a number of southern tracking cases in which courts have stated that tracking was not *per se* illegal but could become such if it was dead-end tracking,[5] and cases challenging the misclassification of minority children into classes for the retarded.[6] In these latter cases, the courts have found particularly weighty the fact that a classification as retarded results in a leveled curriculum that scales down the expectation for and thus the competitive opportunities of those so classified. A "remedial" track which effectively does the same thing for students having the potential to compete with other students contains the same flaw that has offended these courts. The lesson is thus obvious: an accountability system that withdraws from students the opportunity to proceed with their classmates must build in a remedial system that is *fully* and *effectively* implemented with an eye toward allowing these students to catch up.

Another aspect of the new tracking is the effort to create programs for the more advanced. This occurs in the form of magnet schools or specialty programs. It is occuring in some instances to meet the new concern that the gifted must be given a boost and in other instances as a mechanism to attract or hold middle and upper class students—who frequently are Anglo. Bias and thus legal vulnerability can creep into these initiatives in several ways.

First, magnet programs, even where free transportation is provided, are commonly known to attract Anglos more than Hispanics, absent a major focus on educating Hispanic parents and students. If one adds to this the common pattern of "balancing" gifted programs in Anglo neighborhoods with bilingual programs in Hispanic ones, a pattern of intentional segregation can be inferred. Secondly, tests which serve as barriers to enrollment may be biased. Finally, and typically, many of these programs offer no access to the student who cannot speak or understand English. A persuasive case can be made that this violates various civil rights laws.

Another potential problem related to the effort to upgrade the curriculum is the possibility of differential curriculum offering in Anglo and minority schools. Indeed, there is already a discernible pattern in many districts where more advanced courses are offered only in Anglo schools. In and of itself this raises some legal issues; where the curriculum becomes so contracted in minority schools that it becomes virtually impossible to take the courses needed to attend four-year institutions of higher education, a fairly clear case can be made.

A variation of the above problem is the placement of more lower-level vocational programs in poor and minority areas than are offered in other areas. It is possible that this will be exacerbated by the new "partnerships" between industry and the schools. This needs to be watched closely or legal and equity issues will arise.

The Push to Learn English—Issue Number 3

Hardly a report has been issued in recent memory that has not discussed the lack of English literacy by high school graduates. This has led to a number of proposals which have potentially damaging impact on Hispanic students.

The most obvious impact of this concern has been a further lessening of support for bilingual education. Bilingual advocates have not been very successful in conveying the message that a properly implemented bilingual education program offers the promise of more certain progress in English than the most commonly advocated alternatives. Indeed, much of the world believes that bilingual education and the learning of English are antithetical.

Although the evolving federal standard for addressing the needs of limited English proficient students does not mandate bilingual education *per se*, its logic compels such an approach in practice. The leading decision, *Casteneda v. Pickard* 648 F2 989 (5th Cir., 1981), allows school districts the option to focus their initial attention on English language learning but acknowledges that this will result in a decline in substantive learning. Under *Casteneda*, a district that chooses this course must implement a program that is responsive to this loss of substantive learning. Additionally, if a bilingual approach is not chosen, the alternative must be structured and implemented so as to achieve early and competitive English language proficiency. These alternatives are both problematic and much more costly than a bilingual education program.

In any event, it is crystal clear that the rush toward English language learning cannot pass legal muster if it fails to provide meaningfully implemented differential programming.[7]

Though logistically more difficult, this principle applies with equal force to secondary schools. Indeed, evidence presented at several trials[8] supports an argument that bilingual instruction is of greater importance at the secondary level due to the increased complexity of the curriculum.

A side issue which has important equity implications and possible legal ramifications is whether credit toward graduation can be denied for English as a second language course. The push toward greater literacy for high school graduates has frequently been accompanied by a more rigid approach to course credit. On the one hand, school systems and states have a legitimate right to set graduate standards. On the other hand, where such systems are compelled by federal law to provide special courses for students, it can be argued that they cannot penalize the student for taking them. If the evidence were to show, as is likely, that few of the students who took such courses at the high school level ever in fact were able to take the required courses and thus able to graduate, a fairly compelling case could be made that the practice violates these students' rights under the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974.

A Tougher Discipline Policy—Issue Number 4

Several months ago the President declared war on school violence. He also suggested that the Justice Department find a vehicle for obtaining Supreme Court review and reversal of the principles established in *Goss v. Lopez* 419 US 565 (1975). That case established the principle that Due Process must be accorded students who are removed from a school for even a short period of time; as the time removed becomes longer, the student is entitled to more stringent protections.

At least the President recognized the fact that constitutionally protected rights are implicated in student discipline. In the rush to make our schools "safe havens for learning," many others seem to be forgetting this fact. Too, it is sometimes forgotten that we have a history of racial discrimination in discipline that has, on occasion, drawn judicial fire.[9] In addition to intentional bias, discrimination has often crept into the disciplinary process because of the failure of Anglo faculty members to understand different cultural patterns of minority students.

Another discipline issue which has important ramifications for the school concerns the discipline of students who are handicapped and whose disciplinary problems flow from that condition. This occurs most frequently when one is dealing with emotionally disturbed students—many of whom may not be formally diagnosed as such. In such a case, suspension and expulsion may violate PL 94-142, the Education of the Handicapped Act.[10]

Thus, while schools have a right and possibly a duty to assure that a safe learning environment is maintained, their actions are constrained by legitimate protections for students charged with disciplinary infractions. This fact cannot be forgotten in the mindless pursuit of "troublemakers."

Access to Technology—Issue Number 5

There has been increasing recognition of the importance of computers in the schools. Those who have drawn our attention to this fact have noted their importance as an educational tool as well as the fact that a lack of computer skills will hurt a student's vocational future.

Recognition of the importance of computers has not been matched by equal access. There is ample evidence that great disparities exist between rich and poor districts and indeed between rich and poor schools within the same district.[11] This latter situation has occurred on occasion because computer purchases have been left up to PTSAs or their equivalent. Predictably wealthy parents have been more able than poor parents to make such purchases or to leverage gifts from computer manufacturers.

Although the Supreme Court in *San Antonio ISD v. Rodriguez* (411 US 1 (1973)) condoned spending disparities as a matter of federal constitutional law, a number of state courts have followed the example of *Serano v. Priest* (5 C3 584 (1971) in striking down such disparities under state law. Gross difference in access to an increasingly important part of the curriculum could invite scrutiny under these authorities. Too, differential access on the basis of ethnicity might run afoul of regulations issued pursuant to the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Proposals to Upgrade the Teaching Profession—Issue Number 6

The potential legal questions raised by the various proposals to address teaching "ills" are worthy of book-length treatment. Suffice it to mention that increased reliance on standardized tests for teachers, e.g., the National Teachers Examination, is likely to disproportionately deny access to Hispanic and other minority teachers. In light of the desperate need that exists for teachers who have bilingual skills, special judicial scrutiny of this impact may be appropriate under either the Constitution or several federal Civil Rights Acts. As the court stated in *Casteneda v. Pickard* (648 F2 989, 1012) "any school district that chooses to fulfill its obligation under §1703 [20 USC 1703] by means of a Bilingual education program has undertaken a responsibility to provide teachers who are able competently to teach in such a program."

In addition, proposals for subjective evaluations of teacher skills for purposes of determining "merit" raise the substantial possibility of an ethnic or racial factor entering into such determinations. While a measured and reasoned consideration of ethnicity might justify a preference for a Hispanic or Black teacher (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* 438 U.S. 265, (1978)), bigotry against such teachers is a real possibility and decidedly unlawful.

Conclusion

As the above review has sought to make clear, tension does exist between equity and many of the proposals for excellence. This is not to suggest, however, that the two concepts are incompatible; rather, it is to suggest that reform agendas need to be carefully scrutinized to assure that equity considerations are addressed. If this is not done by those making the proposals, it almost certainly will be done by the courts.

Notes

1. *Debra P.V. Turlington* 644 F2 397 (5th Cir., 1981) upheld a District Court ruling which enjoined the use of a competency test which had a disparate impact on the graduation rate of Black students. One basis of the injunction was that the state (Florida), by maintaining segregated schools, had contributed to the disparity.
2. Test bias need not be intentional. *Larry P. v. Riles* 495 F. Supp 926 (D. Cal 1979).
3. See discussion in Issue Number 3.
4. See e.g. Goodlad, "A Place Called School" New York, McGraw Hill, 1983.
5. e.g. *McNeal v. Tate County School District* 508 F2 1017 (5th Cir. 1975).
6. *Ibid.* N.2.
7. *Lau v. Nichols* 414 U.S. 563 (1974).
8. *U.S. v. Texas* 506 F. Supp 405 (ED Tex 1981) Rev'd on other Grounds & Remanded 680 F2 356 (5th Cir., 1982); *Keyes v. School Dist. #1*, Denver 576 F. Supp 1503 (D. Colo., 1983).
9. See e.g. *Boykins v. Ambridge Area School Dist.* 621 Fe 75 (3rd Cir., 1980). *Hawkins v. Coleman* 376 F. Supp 1330 (N.D. Tex 1974).
10. See e.g. *S-1 v. Turlington* 635 F2 342 (5th Cir., 1981).
11. The Education Commission of the States, Law and Education Center "Footnotes", reports in its Summer 1983 edition: "A recent Market Data Retrieval survey indicates that 50% of American schools have at least one microcomputer. There is a pattern of acquisition, however: 80% of the 2,000 richest districts own microcomputers while 40% of the poorer districts own them, followed by only 12% of the high-poverty districts. Since more minority students are found in the poorer districts, questions of equity arise." "Footnote," p. 11.

Hispanic Youth Employment:
Some Lessons and Models For Business Involvement

Gary Walker

In casual discussions about youth employment—particularly minority youth unemployment—it is not unusual to hear one or more of the following comments:

> "Almost 40 percent of minority kids are currently unemployed—that can't just be because of discrimination, or too few jobs to go around. The problem is that a lot of these kids really don't want to work. Or at least they don't want to start at the bottom and work their way up—their expectations are not realistic."
>
> "In the 1970s billions of dollars were spent on youth employment programs. The CETA program was terminated because none of its programs worked, and the truth is nobody knows what works. And governments at all levels are just too financially strapped to commit major funds to keep trying to find out what will work."
>
> "Businesses have too many problems of their own without getting involved in time-consuming programs for problem kids. Business is not supposed to do the work of the community, family, and school—business wants to hire people who are ready and able to work."
>
> "When there are more jobs, then there won't be a minority youth unemployment problem. It's as simple as that."

These are not just the views of an outspoken few. I have heard responsible and involved leaders in many large urban communities express them—sometimes publicly, often privately, sometimes with certitude, and at other times with an "I-wish-this-weren't-true-but-it-appears-to-be-the-case" tentativeness. The views add up to a hopelessness about formulating and implementing any sensible program to deal with youth unemployment.

A tendency to focus on the "worst case" in part explains these views. News stories about unemployed teenagers knocking down and robbing older citizens are statistically meaningless, compared to the number of kids who spent the same day looking for jobs, going to school, working, or just doing nothing. But those news stories are dramatic, and—heard daily—are easy to use as a basis for generalization.

In addition, the lessons learned from youth programs of the past have not received wide dissemination. Many of the lessons have emerged in long-term studies, whose findings were not available until recently. Many were ignored in the effort to dismantle the CETA program. There is also a tendency in social programming not to build carefully on past lessons but to begin each decade from scratch, as if nothing had yet been learned.

There is no hidden answer to be uncovered nor program that can be activated in order to resolve the problem of minority youth unemployment or to make every young person employable. What has been learned over the past decade, however, supports a set of views which differ from those above; even more important, perhaps, various action models have proved themselves in various communities, and can be replicated. That these lessons and models be understood and utilized is particularly important for Hispanic youth, who over the next decade will become an increasingly significant proportion of an otherwise declining youth population. These lessons and models are also important for the business community, particularly businesses located in urban areas, since most economists are predicting an urban labor shortage by 1990. Thus, dealing with an increasing proportion of the available labor pool—Hispanic youth—is not simply dealing with a social problem, but ultimately one of workforce productivity.

The 1970s saw a host of federally-initiated youth employment, education, and training programs. A number of them were structured to provide reliable data, and a few broad lessons derived from that data are particularly important.

While youth frequently are described as not interested in entry-level employment, several experiments have shown that this is not so. The vast majority want to work. The high unemployment rate for young people does not stem from a declining interest in work, or an unwillingness to take low-paying jobs.

Most jobs programs for young people, including the Summer Youth Employment Program, have seen capacity enrollments of youths seeking jobs, but perhaps the largest effort undertaken to study low-income minority youth's willingness to work can be found in a demonstration program operated in 17 major cities from 1978 to 1980, and managed and evaluated by a private firm in New York City, the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation. In that demonstration over 80,000 low-income young people applied for work at minimum-wage jobs. For in-school youth, the jobs were conditioned on continued satisfactory school performance, and for school dropouts, on return to an education program and satisfactory performance in it. In this program there were never jobs without youths waiting to fill them, and in several communities the capacity of the public and alternative school systems had to be expanded to meet their needs. This program equalized the employment rate of white and non-white youth in cities like Detroit, whereas previous to the program the non-white youth unemployment rate was double that of white youth.

In short, the true generalization is that the vast majority of minority young people want to work. In the program above—the Youth Incentive Entitlement Program—poor minority youth participated at higher rates than did their white counterparts. They did so despite the fact that they worked for the minimum wage, their jobs were conditioned upon satisfactory school attendance and performance, no skills training was provided, and no permanent jobs were promised for successful program participation. Thus the data do not support the charge of unrealistic expectations.

The programs with the greatest long-term impact per dollar spent were those designed to deal with the deficiencies of specific, definable groups of youth.

One of the benefits of the variety of youth programs funded in the 1970s was the opportunity to assess the effectiveness of various approaches. What became clear was that the greatest value per program dollar spent came from those programs designed for and targeted to young people with specific deficiencies.

For example, the National Supported Work Demonstration, which provided a 12-month work experience for unemployed high school dropouts in eight cities, found that by itself a year-long work experience—though highly structured and closely supervised—did not improve long-range employment prospects. A revised version of the concept, however, was enriched with remedial tutoring and counseling, and appeared—according to a short-term study—to be more effective. The Jobs Corps, the largest ongoing youth program to undergo evaluation, incorporated training and education with work experience, and has an impressive record of effectiveness per dollar spent. Significant improvement has been found in the long-term earning and employment records of the young people who took part in it, and it was designed for youth with a specific and definable set of problems.

Different kinds of programs work best with different age groups. Teenagers, for example, tend to "sample" jobs. Acquiring basic academic, social, and attitudinal competencies is the key for them. Young people in their 20s think more seriously about long-term employment. The critical elements then are developing job skills and gaining access to careers.

Though this lesson—the advantage of tailoring the activity or product to meet the specific needs of the problem or market—seems obvious in business and the professions, until recently it has not been systematically applied to youth employment problems. In a time of limited public and private funds, focusing those funds where they can make a difference becomes even more important.

Private businesses have had an active role in almost every successful youth program.

In the Youth Incentive Entitlement demonstration mentioned earlier, the 17 cities operating the program were allowed to offer part- and full-time jobs in the public, the non-profit, and the profit sectors. Many assumed that businesses would be least likely to participate. In fact, about 6,000 private employers throughout the country—some 55 percent of the total work sponsors—provided jobs for the participating young people. These businesses received wage subsidies. Over 80 percent of the private employers who were interviewed reported that the youths' work habits, attitudes, and willingness to work were average or better than average.

That programs with active business participation are generally more successful should come as no surprise. A significant portion of minority and thus Hispanic youth employment problems are problems of transition, access, and understanding the unspoken rules of the world of work. The more actively the major employing sector—the for-profit sector—is involved, the more quickly and successfully those problems are overcome.

The broad lessons which emerge from the youth programs, demonstrations, and experiments of the past present a set of conclusions very different from those negative views with which we began this paper: First, young people, perhaps particularly minority young people, want to work. Second, numerous programs have been documented successes, often experiments carefully targeted and designed (rather than the more publicized efforts like summer employment or career education days). Third, business itself was actively involved in most of these successful efforts.

Thus the youth unemployment picture generally, and for Hispanics specifically, need not be viewed with a sense of futility: that there's no use doing anything, for example, until the economy turns around and provides more jobs. That particular view, in fact, seems wrong on several counts. First, even when jobs are available, minority and thus Hispanic youth employment does not show a proportionate increase. *Access and transition are process problems that can be dealt with by building substitutes for the informal channels available to most white youth.* Second, the successful programs indicate that underlying the "youth unemployment" or "Hispanic youth unemployment" problem are a variety of issues relating to different age groups, school status, and so on. If a program is to be effective, a variety of strategies are needed. Building and refining these strategies does take time and effort, and the most efficient use of what has been learned is to continue the building process instead of being forced to start over once again.

Numerous programs provide useful models for replication. Some have unassailable methodologies and long-term findings to support their success. Other models seem so sensible, and provide such good in-program results, that clearly they deserve further implementation. These successful models require varying degrees and kinds of business involvement, and reflect different needs of the businesses involved and the youth served. The models described below are notable not for their uniqueness or superiority, but for the kinds of business involvement they typify and the kinds of problems they target. They show that businesses can be actively and successfully involved in a broader range of issues than often is thought to be appropriate.

1. Business Involvement with High-Risk Populations: Pre-employment Assistance Models

It is a widely shared view that "industry cannot be expected to take on the responsibility of instilling in youth the basic aptitudes and attitudes needed for work." This would seem to be even more the case when dealing with young Hispanic females, for example, who have dropped out of school, have children of their own, and are subsisting on welfare. Or young Hispanic males who have dropped out of school and have had some brush with the law. I use these extreme examples because existing programs in Phoenix, Arizona, and Oakland, California, show that the above generalization misses the mark: industry cannot be expected to take on the responsibility *alone*, but without its active participation youth like those described above may stand little chance of ever proving that they are capable of holding regular jobs. And young people like these will require massive amounts of public assistance and institutional involvement—perhaps for their entire lives—if they are not brought into the employment mainstream. Neither the Phoenix nor the Oakland program was initiated or is financially maintained by business, but business involvement is critical to their success.

In Phoenix, a non-profit organization—Chicanos por la Causa—operates as a central referral source and group counseling center for pregnant young females, or young females who have had children, who are living on welfare and are out-of-school. The organization attempts to ensure that appropriate medical, parenting, nutritional, and birth control services are received, and in addition requires the girls to implement an education plan. To encourage them to see themselves not as long-term welfare recipients but as self-sufficient workers, private employers regularly are brought in to conduct seminars on career options and employer expectations in the world of work. Businesses also participate in longer training courses relating to employment options that offer good prospects and that interest the young women. This is a modest involvement, and one many companies are accustomed to providing at public high schools. But for many of these young girls, the experience provides their first contact with the regular employment world. All other involvement is with public institutions or non-profit organizations, but this limited business involvement has led several of the participating companies to hire girls who have stayed with the program and succeeded in its other components.

Hispanic females have such a low labor force participation rate, and such a high scholastic dropout rate—thus contributing to low Hispanic family incomes—that business involvement in such programs as this one may have far more impact than might be expected by the level of involvement required.

In Oakland, the Peralta Corporation—a non-profit organization sponsored by the Spanish Speaking Unity Council—hires unemployed young men without high school diplomas and with some criminal involvement. Jobs, with close supervision and work habit training, are provided for up to one year. The work Peralta offers these young men is subcontract work from local businesses. The beginning wage is the minimum, with incentive bonuses and raises built into the program.

Business subcontract work provides about 50 percent of Peralta's total income. Peralta board members, a number of whom are local business people, not only oversee the project but provide technical advice, jobs for graduates, and access to other members of the business community. The Peralta experience is a transition period between the streets, or prison, and the private employer, and for a youth whose Peralta experience is successful, the likelihood of a regular job is high because of active business participation at all stages of Peralta's program.

The notion that a business cannot play a strong and successful role with high-risk youth is not only erroneous, it undermines the enterprise's opportunity to make a significant impact on young people who might otherwise never become part of the regular workforce. Studies show that welfare mothers who bear a second child before they are 18 are unlikely to enter the labor force and move off welfare. And for males, unemployment at age 20 is a strong predictor of subsequent unemployment.

2. Business Involvement with Low-Income Groups: Access and Training Assistance

Large numbers of low-income Hispanics do not have the dramatic problems of the groups described above, but neither do they have informal access to jobs with training and upward mobility. This is a group whose income and productivity potential usually is significantly greater than what they achieve. Their achievements can be increased by programs improving their access to and transition into specific companies.

Established by the National Puerto Rican Forum, the Bilingual Clerical Skills Training Program in Hartford, Connecticut, is designed to meet increasing employer demands for multi-functional clerical workers. The six-month intensive training course includes academic classes, individual tutoring, field internships, and career counseling. The students are low-income Hispanic individuals referred from the local CETA program.

As I write, the program is in its third cycle. The results of the first two cycles are impressive: 90 percent of the trainees completed the training and 92 percent have been placed.

Hartford's insurance and banking industries have played an active role in this program. The Aetna Life and Casualty Insurance Company was one of the original funders, providing one-third of the money as a supplement to CETA funding from the Hartford prime sponsor and the Governor's Discretionary funds. Corporate sponsorship now has been extended to Connecticut General, Connecticut National Bank, and the Connecticut Bank and Trust Company. These major companies participate through financial and in-kind support, curriculum development, provision of training sites for field internships, and the employment of program completers.

Most of the trainees have been hired by the four major sponsoring companies. Current plans are to add additional companies and to operate two concurrent training cycles of 30 participants each. Hartford's insurance and banking industries continue to exhibit a high demand for clerical workers.

The School To Work Transition Program in San Antonio, Texas, gives pre-employment and work-readiness training to high school juniors and seniors in the San Antonio Independent School District. Most of the students are Hispanics. The Private Industry Council has brought together approximately 20 small businesses to help design the curriculum and to provide part-time work sites during the summer. Workshops are provided by the San Antonio Alliance of Business, and students spend roughly 40 hours a semester in the workshops during the school year. During the summer they spend half their time in the workshops and half their time at work. Students do not receive stipends for participating in the workshops but are paid wages by the participating companies during their summer part-time employment. Thus far, approximately 100 students have been served. Each training cycle can accommodate roughly 40 to 50 young people. The success rate has been higher than that of other CETA programs dealing with in-school youth.

These programs have significant corporate involvement in funding, planning, operations, and ultimate hiring. They also emphasize the relation of education to employability—a particularly important feature for any program dealing with low-income Hispanic youth.

3. Business Outreach and Hiring

This final category and example are included because language, access, and cultural barriers can work to exclude Hispanic professionals from high-paying jobs.

Turner, Collie and Braden is the largest engineering consultant firm in the Southwest. With a workforce of over 600, they provide engineering services in civil engineering projects—airports, highways, and the like.

The company has made a concerted effort to hire minorities, particularly Hispanics. Their executives are active participants on several community college advisory committees, including San Antonio Community College and the Texas State Technology Institute near the Mexican border. These community colleges offer good programs in engineering, design, and drafting. Turner, Collie and Braden executives work with the advisory committees to make sure that the classroom curriculum is consistent with the company's requirements. The firm has hired from 60 to 70 graduates from the community colleges into entry level technician jobs. They are now extending their community college involvement to the North Harris Junior College in Houston.

There are numerous other efforts like the one described above; what is notable about the Turner, Collie effort is their active participation on community college advisory committees, so that their professional expertise is utilized before their efforts to hire graduates begin.

The above three categories and their illustrative models show the feasibility and importance of active corporate involvement at all levels of Hispanic youth employment programs. They also indicate the kind and depth of involvement a business community should expect to invest in dealing with these particular issues. Thus an individual company can look at its own internal operations, its needs, and the strengths of its particular departments and personnel, to determine the kinds of involvement that best meet its own needs and utilize its assistance capabilities. For high-risk groups, providing career and world-of-work seminars as well as somewhat longer sessions on particular careers, as in the Phoenix teen-age parent project, or providing business oversight and direction on subcontract work, as in the Peralta project, are useful involvements that utilize the training and management skills present in many businesses. This involvement often leads to actual employment for the youth —employment which otherwise would not have taken place. In a sense businesses participating in programs like these, utilizing their skills, are assisting in employability development. Such businesses use the program as a "screener" or "buffer" until the youth is job-ready, and then hire the young people who have been successful in the program. Because of their active and ongoing involvement, the businesses have a good sense of how well the program is operating and whether its successful participants are likely to be good employees.

For low-income youth, programs like those in Hartford and San Antonio provide access, work experience, and world-of-work and skills training which will appreciably increase their employment and income prospects. Businesses are providing planning and curriculum development assistance, actual training, and employment. The involvement is substantial, and is aimed at producing good employees in the short run. The Hartford program will be more effective for slightly older youth (20 to 24), since it invests training resources in a specific skills area.

For educated Hispanic professionals, the Turner, Collie project provides access to better jobs. Turner, Collie targets its outreach efforts, and is actively involved in the ongoing activities of the community colleges from which it hires.

In each of the three categories, successful business involvement is linked to the activities of local public and non-profit institutions. These agencies provide funding, outreach, support services, counseling, employment screening, education, and other activities that business usually is not organized or suited to provide. Such linkages are encouraged in numerous ways under the new Jobs Training Partnership Act, and that Act can be utilized to support most of the projects noted above, except for the Turner, Collie program.

Business involvement has taken numerous other forms in youth programs—Adopt-a-School (in Washington, D.C., and many other cities), assistance in designing industrial academies (the Philadelphia Academy Program), the provision of targeted summer employment programs (Ralston-Purina in St. Louis), work/study programs (Continental-Illinois Bank is a well-known example), career intern programs (in Philadelphia), and many others. The successful ones utilize the same principles outlined above: services carefully designed and targeted to meet the needs of a defined portion of the youth population; business involvement appropriate to business needs and assistance capacity; and use of public and non-profit institutions for complementary funding, services, screening, and other activities not suited to nor appropriate for business. In short, there are well-tested principles and models for business involvement in youth employment problems of varying severity. The tasks for the remaining years of the 1980s are (1) better communication of those lessons, (2) their careful implementation, and (3) the replication of successful projects.

Hispanics In Fast Food Jobs

Ivan Charner *and* Bryna Shore Fraser

Major fast food companies, seeking a larger market share among Hispanics and other minority groups, are pursuing new or expanded business in urban neighborhoods. Concurrently, many large fast food chains are offering their hourly employees opportunities to advance through their restaurants' formal management programs. It is important and timely to learn more about the character and impact of jobs provided by the fast food industry, an industry offering mobility opportunities and one of the nation's largest sources of employment.

In this paper we examine Hispanics in fast food jobs. A number of questions about these jobs for Hispanic hourly employees are explored:

1. Who works in fast food jobs and why?
2. What is the value of the fast food job experience?
3. What is the impact of working in a fast food job?
4. What are the nature and quality of training and supervision?
5. Why do employees leave their fast food jobs?

In addition, differences between Hispanic employees and those from other racial/ethnic groups will be discussed.

The data for this paper are drawn from a larger study of employment in the fast food industry, conducted by the National Institute for Work and Learning. The study sample consisted of 7,741 hourly employees on the May or June 1982 payrolls of 279 fast food restaurants from seven companies: Arby's, Del Taco, Kentucky Fried Chicken, Krystal, McDonald's, Roy Rogers, and White Castle. A response rate of 66 percent was obtained for the study. Of the 4,660 respondents in our sample, 194 (4.2 percent) reported that they were Hispanic. All the findings reported in this paper are based on this sample of Hispanic hourly employees.

Profile of Hispanic Fast Food Employees

In order to provide a background for looking at Hispanic employment in the fast food industry, it is important to know who, among Hispanics, works in fast food jobs and why. Table 1 provides a breakdown of Hispanic employees by selected characteristics. The table also provides a comparison with the total sample of hourly fast food employees. As the table shows, Hispanic employees are somewhat less likely to be female (62 percent v. 66 percent) and are somewhat younger (75 percent 20 years old or younger v. 71 percent). Sixty percent of the Hispanic employees describe themselves as Mexican American or Chicano, while 40 percent describe themselves as Puerto Rican or other Latin American. As with the total sample, well over half the Hispanic employees live with their parents and siblings. Over one-quarter, however, indicate that they live alone, with non-relatives, or with a spouse. The Hispanic employees come from homes with parents of low educational attainment, with two-thirds of the respondents' fathers and three-quarters of their mothers having a high school education or less. A much larger proportion of Hispanic employees have parents with low educational attainment than do other fast food employees.

In terms of their own educational attainment, we find a larger proportion of Hispanic employees still in high school (40 percent v. 30 percent) and therefore fewer who have graduated from high school (48 percent vs. 64 percent). About 40 percent of the Hispanic employees have continued their education beyond high school, with 22 percent having attended or currently attending two- and four-year colleges. The Hispanic employees also have high educational expectations. Forty percent expect to graduate from a two-year college, and a similar percentage expect to graduate from a four-year college. The educational expectations of the Hispanic employees, however, are somewhat lower than for other fast food employees.

Table 1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF FAST FOOD EMPLOYEES

(In Percentages)

Characteristic	Hispanics	Total Sample
A. Sex		
Male	38	34
Female	62	66
B. Age		
14-15	2	1
16-17	33	27
18-20	40	43
21-24	11	14
25 or older	14	6
C. Racial/Ethnic group		
Black	---	16
White	---	77
Hispanic	---	5
Other	---	3
D. With whom do you live? *		
Father	48	55
Mother	67	66
Siblings	59	56
Spouse	18	17
Children	15	17
Other relatives	8	7
Other non-relatives	7	7
By myself	2	3
E. Father's education		
Less than high school	44	27
High school graduate	22	30
Some college	6	12
A.A. degree	5	13
B.A. degree or greater	13	19
Don't know	13	9
F. Mother's education		
Less than high school	56	27
High school graduate	20	39
Some college	5	13
A.A. degree	5	5
B.A. degree or greater	5	10
Don't know	10	5

* Multiple responses possible

When we looked at high school programs, we found the highest proportion of Hispanic employees reporting that they were in a general program in high school (36 percent), compared to the proportion in academic (27 percent) and vocational or technical (17 percent) programs. Fully 18 percent did not know which high school program they were in. The high school grade averages for Hispanic employees were fairly high, with 12 percent reporting A or A minus and another 40 percent reporting B or B plus. Only 14 percent of these employees reported grade averages of C or lower.

Table 2

HISPANIC FAST FOOD EMPLOYEES' ATTITUDES ABOUT WORK IN GENERAL

Attitudes	% Disagree	% Neutral	% Agree
Like work you can forget about after day is over	41	25	35
Work is nothing more than making a living	64	14	22
Expect work to be central part of my life	15	22	63
Want to be best in job	5	7	88
Would like to stay in same job most of adult life	44	21	35
Would want to work even if didn't have to *	15	---	85

* Response categories for this question were "would want to work" (agree) and "would not want to work" (disagree).

As Table 2 shows, the "work ethic" is alive and well among these Hispanic fast food employees. Sixty-four percent believe that work is more than making a living, and 63 percent expect work to be a central part of their lives. More important, 88 percent want to do their best in their jobs, and 85 percent report that they would want to work even if they didn't have to. It is interesting to note, however, that over one-third (35 percent) of the respondents would like to stay in the same job most of their adult lives. With most persons changing jobs seven to ten times during their lives and changing careers three to five times, this expectation seems unrealistic.

One-quarter of the Hispanic employees (compared with 19 percent overall) report that they make special scheduling arrangements with their schools in order to work in their fast food jobs, 13 percent receive school credit for working on their jobs, and 16 percent report that their supervisors provide their schools with reports on how well they do their jobs.

This profile suggests that Hispanic employees in the fast food industry are likely to be:

- female (62 percent),
- relatively young (73 percent are 16-20 years old),
- Mexican American (60 percent),
- living at home with parents,
- born to parents with low educational attainments,

- currently attending high school (40 percent) or high school graduates (48 percent),
- good students (52 percent with grades of B or better), and
- continuing or planning to continue their education beyond high school.

Except for the high proportion of female employees, the population of Hispanic hourly fast food employees tends to look very much like that of Hispanic youth in general. (See William A. Diaz, *Hispanic Youth Employment: An Overview*, Hispanic Policy Development Project, March 1983.) There are, however, a number of variations in this pattern which must be noted. First, a relatively large proportion of Hispanic hourly fast food employees are 21 years old or older. Second, a fairly large group of Hispanic employees are married, have children, or live away from their parents. Third, well over half these hourly fast food employees were in high school while they were employed in their fast food jobs. Fourth, about one in five had attended or was currently attending a two- or four-year college.

Hispanic fast food employees are educationally mobile, aspiring to levels of education well beyond those of their parents. They also believe in the work ethic, expecting work to be a central part of their lives and wanting to do their best in their jobs. Finally, we find some link between the fast food job and schooling for about one-quarter of these fast food employees.

The Fast Food Job

Another objective of this paper is to report on the fast food job market for Hispanics, including how they found their jobs, reasons for working, duties, hours worked, length of employment, pay, fringe benefits, and reasons for terminating employment.

Most Hispanic fast food employees learned about the job opening from friends (35 percent) or by walking in and applying (27 percent). A slightly higher proportion of Hispanics, compared to other groups, learned about the job opening from siblings. It is clear that individuals must learn about vacancies through word of mouth or by walking in and applying.

Hispanic fast food employees work for a large number of reasons, as shown in Table 3. Most of these employees work to "have money for other things" (72 percent), to support themselves (65 percent), to gain experience (54 percent), and to learn skills (52 percent).

Table 3

REASONS GIVEN BY HISPANIC EMPLOYEES FOR HAVING FAST FOOD JOBS

Reason	% Very Important
Help support family	40
Support myself	65
Have money for other things	72
Experience of working	54
Parents want me to work	22
Friends work here	9
Learn skills	52
Save for future education	43

When we compare Hispanic with Black and White employees, we find the following:

- Hispanic (40 percent) and Black employees (44 percent) are much more likely than White employees (21 percent) to work to help support their families.
- Fifty-four percent of Hispanic and 58 percent of Black employees work to gain work experience, compared to 43 percent of White employees.
- Over half the Hispanic (52 percent) and Black (53 percent) employees work to learn skills, compared to 32 percent of White employees.

We assume that these differences are due, in part, to the economic situation of these groups. That is, with respect to Hispanic and Black employees who still live at home, we suspect that at least part of their wages go to help support their families. Hispanic and Black employees are also less likely to have a great deal of work experience or to have an abundance of marketable skills. As a result, these employees work not only for financial reasons but as a way of acquiring skills and work experience.

Most hourly fast food employees are required to perform multiple tasks in their fast food restaurants. Almost all employees, however, have primary duties for which they are responsible. Among Hispanic employees, 45 percent are responsible for front-of-the-store activities. Administrative tasks are the primary responsibility for 28 percent of these employees. Back-of-the-store activities (18 percent), hosting in dining area (7 percent), and maintenance (2 percent) are primary responsibilities for smaller proportions of Hispanic employees. It is interesting to note that Hispanic employees are more likely than Black (22 percent) or White (22 percent) employees to have primary responsibility for administrative tasks such as training and supervising other hourly employees.

The mean number of hours worked per week for these Hispanic hourly fast food employees was 31, higher than for White employees (mean of 29 hours) and lower than for Black employees (mean of 33 hours). While a large proportion of these employees are clearly part-time, working 20 hours or less per week (18 percent), an even larger group is full-time, working 36 or more hours per week (33 percent). When we look at the proportion of Hispanic employees who work 31 or more hours per week, the percentage increases to 55 percent. Hispanic employees are likely to be working to help support their families and therefore work more hours so they can bring home more money.

The mean length of employment of Hispanic fast food employees was 14.8 months. This was the lowest among the three racial/ethnic groups. The mean for White employees was 19.3 months and for Black employees 17.3 months. Over half the Hispanic employees (56 percent) were employed for 12 months or less (33 percent for six months or less) with 16 percent employed for more than two years.

The mean hourly wage for Hispanic employees was $3.71. This was equal to that of White employees and 11 cents per hour higher than the wage for Black employees. Hourly wages rates are related to age, length of employment, and hours worked per week. Hispanic employees 25 years old or older earn $4.18 per hour, compared to $3.60 per hour for younger Hispanic employees. Hispanic employees employed for six months or less earn $3.41 per hour, compared with $3.66 for 7-12 months, $3.80 for 13-18 months, $3.95 for 19-24 months, $4.03 for 25-36 months, and $4.27 for 37 months or longer. Hispanic employees who worked 36 or more hours per week had hourly wages of $4.01. Those who worked 21-35 hours per week had hourly wages of $3.59, and those who worked 20 hours or fewer per week had hourly wages of $3.47. We also find a small difference in hourly wage rates between Hispanic males and females, with males making $3.71 per hour and females $3.65 per hour.

In Table 4 we show the fringe benefits received by Hispanic fast food employees. We see that almost all these employees get either free meals (69 percent) or a discount on meals (36 percent). We also find that 41 percent get paid vacations, with considerably smaller proportions getting other fringe benefits. Many benefits are dependent on working full time. Because a relatively large proportion of Hispanic employees work less than 36 hours per week, they are not likely to receive fringe benefits other than free or discounted meals.

Table 4

FRINGE BENEFITS OF HISPANIC FAST FOOD EMPLOYEES

Benefit	% Reporting that They Get the Benefit
Free meals	69
Discount on meals	36
An allowance to maintain uniform	21
Paid vacation	41
Paid sick leave	7
Paid holidays	19
Insurance benefits	24
Educational benefits	3

Forty-three percent of the Hispanic group were no longer employed in their fast food job at the time of the survey. This compared to 32 percent of the non-Hispanic employees. Only five percent of these Hispanic employees were fired (10 percent for others), with the remaining 95 percent terminating on their own. The reasons for quitting are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

REASONS GIVEN BY HISPANIC EMPLOYEES FOR QUITTING FAST FOOD JOB

	% Reporting Reason
To take a different job	19
To return to school	22
Did not like work	5
Pay was too low	16
Problems with transportation	3
Did not like coworkers	2
Not satisfied with schedule	11
Did not like supervisor	9
Other unspecified reasons	14

Four out of ten Hispanic employees who quit their fast food jobs did so to take a different job (19 percent) or to return to school (22 percent). Over one-quarter quit because the pay was too low (16 percent) or they were not satisfied with their schedule. Most Hispanic employees who terminated did so on their own in order to gain new work or educational experience or because of problems with pay or schedule.

Training

Another aspect of the fast food job is training. Hispanics, like all employees, received training from a number of different sources. This is shown in Table 6.

While the largest single source of training is on-the-job experience (85 percent), Hispanic employees received training from a number of other sources, including managers (55 percent), assistant managers (61 percent), supervisors (54 percent), co-workers (73 percent), training films or slides (50 percent), and printed instructions (45 percent). After on-the-job experience, training by an individual in the store is the most often used source of training, followed by training materials and then outside store personnel. Which of these other sources of training is used to supplement on-the-job experience seems to depend on individual store or company policies, with some relying on special trainers while others use training films/slides or printed materials.

Table 6

SOURCE AND USEFULNESS OF TRAINING RECEIVED BY HISPANIC FAST FOOD EMPLOYEES
(In Percentages)

Training Source	Some or A Lot Received	Some or A Lot of Help
Manager	55	70
Assistant manager	61	77
Crew chief/supervisor	54	73
Co-worker(s)	73	83
Special trainer	35	67
District manager/supervisor	13	43
Area manager/supervisor	15	44
Training films or slides	50	64
Printed instructions	45	61
On-the-job (experience)	85	94

Table 6 also shows how useful each source of training is. Not only is on-the-job experience the most often used source of training, it is also the most useful source of training (94 percent found it to be some or a lot of help). The only sources of training that were not considered useful by over half the Hispanic fast food employees trained by that source were district and area managers. Regardless of the source of training (except district and area managers), most Hispanic workers found the training from each source to be useful.

Supervision

Management personnel in a fast food restaurant have a large number of responsibilities. They hire and fire employees, schedule work hours, train employees, order food and supplies, supervise employees, and deal with customers. They make sure that the restaurant is effectively and efficiently run. Because of the central role played by management personnel, it is important to see how Hispanic employees perceive their managers and supervisors. Almost nine out of ten Hispanic hourly employees are scheduled by their managers (56 percent) or assistant managers (31 percent). Half are satisfied with the way their time is scheduled, with 27 percent dissatisfied.

A second area of management responsibility is training. We found managers, assistant managers, and supervisors supplementing on-the-job experience for over half the Hispanic employees, and we found these employees highly satisfied with the training they received from management personnel.

Day-to-day supervision is one of the most important responsibilities of management personnel. Forty-seven percent of Hispanic employees are supervised on a day-to-day basis by assistant managers and 30 percent by managers. Another 14 percent are supervised by crew chiefs. Over three-quarters of Hispanic employees feel they are adequately supervised on a day-to-day basis.

In general, Hispanic employees feel that management personnel handle training, scheduling, and supervisory responsibilities well. They also tend to have positive opinions about their management personnel, as shown in Table 7.

The vast majority of Hispanic employees feel that all management personnel treat employees fairly, perform their jobs well, provide adequate supervision, deal well with people, keep them informed, and don't play favorites.

Table 7

HISPANIC EMPLOYEE ASSESSMENT OF MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL

Dimension	% Agreeing about Manager	% Agreeing about Assistant Manager	% Agreeing about Supervisor
Treats employees fairly	75	70	72
Performs job well	76	77	81
Provides adequate supervision	74	74	76
Plays favorites	44	37	29
Treats me better than most	21	21	15
Treats me worse than most	11	9	7
Deals well with people	77	70	76
Keeps me informed	73	72	74

Effects of Fast Food Job

Fast food employees are required to perform a wide variety of tasks. Many of these are specific to fast food jobs, but a number are clearly transferable to other jobs and roles. The training in these tasks and the continuous and repeated performance of these tasks help employees master a diverse set of skills. Table 8 shows the job related skills that the fast food job helped develop for Hispanic employees.

Table 8

IMPACT OF FAST FOOD JOB ON JOB RELATED SKILLS FOR HISPANIC EMPLOYEES

	Percentage Helped Develop			
Job Related Skills	Not at All	A Little	Some	A Lot
Operate a cash register	12	6	15	67
Operate food preparation machines	7	10	25	58
Operate other machines	8	12	33	47
Train other employees	10	13	34	43
Inventory or stock control	40	12	23	25
Supervise other employees	28	18	27	28
Bookkeeping or accounting	71	12	10	8
Food preparation	4	10	27	60

Since most fast food employees operate cash registers and other types of machines, it is not surprising to find that the fast food job helped (some or a great deal) Hispanic employees develop skills related to operation of a cash register (83 percent), operation of food preparation machines (83 percent), and operation of other machines (80 percent).

In terms of developing management or administrative skills, we see from Table 8 that fast food jobs have somewhat less impact than they do on learning how to operate equipment. Specifically, almost eight out of ten employees developed skills (some or a great deal) related to training other employees. Over half learned supervisory skills, five out of ten learned inventory control, and less than 20 percent developed bookkeeping or accounting skills. Finally, we found that almost nine out of ten Hispanic employees feel that their job has helped them learn the skills associated with food preparation.

Overall, the fast food job offers Hispanic employees an opportunity to perform a variety of duties which clearly help develop a number of job related skills. Little or no variation in the acquisition of these job related skills is found when Hispanic employees are compared to employees from other racial/ethnic groups.

In addition to job related skills, we examined how the fast food job affected the development of general employability skills. Such skills are important not only for obtaining future jobs but for being successful on a job and for progressing in a career. They are of particular concern to employers who hire youths and others with limited work experience. For almost two-thirds (64 percent) of Hispanic employees, the fast food job experience helped them become aware of how a business runs. Nine out of ten reported that their jobs had helped them learn the skills associated with dealing with people, and 95 percent reported that the jobs had helped them learn to work with others (teamwork).

These Hispanic fast food employees also gain other employability skills as a result of their fast food jobs. Many of these skills are basic for successful job performance and for functioning as a member of a family, a community, or the larger society. While many of these are taught in school, in the home, and in other organizations, it is most interesting to see the relatively high proportion of Hispanic employees who feel that their fast food job helped them acquire these skills, which include dealing with customers (85 percent), taking directions (79 percent), getting along with coworkers (77 percent), being on time (67 percent), finishing an assigned task (75 percent), taking responsibility for mistakes (73 percent), being dependable (71 percent), being well groomed (56 percent), managing their own money (68 percent), saving for what is wanted (64 percent), and getting along on a certain amount of money (65 percent).

It is clear that the fast food job has helped Hispanic employees gain employability skills related to sales/service, functioning on a job, and financial/money matters. It is noteworthy that the fast food job is more likely to help Hispanic employees learn most of these skills than other employees. This is shown in Table 9.

We conclude from our findings that the fast food experience is helping Hispanic employees to acquire these basic skills. They may be less likely to develop these skills through other experiences or from other institutions and organizations, and are perhaps more likely to gain these skills through their fast food jobs than are employees who have the opportunity to learn these skills elsewhere. For many of these Hispanic employees, it appears that the fast food job is the primary arena for learning these skills.

Another way of looking at the effects of the fast food work experience is to determine how Hispanic employees feel about the effects of the job. We assessed how the fast food job affects different aspects of the Hispanic employees' lives, including school, friends and social life, and family. The fast food job has only a minimal effect on school work. Only 26 percent feel that their jobs interfere with school work. Nine percent feel they do better in school, and 14 percent feel they do worse in school since they have been working in the fast food restaurant. It would seem that the fast food job does not interfere with school work and does not affect performance in school for most of these Hispanic employees.

Table 9

DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS FOR FAST FOOD EMPLOYEES FROM DIFFERENT RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUPS*

(Percent Helped a Great Deal)

	Racial/Ethnic Group		
Employability Skill	**Hispanic**	**White**	**Black**
Being on time	43	29	39
Finishing an assigned task	41	29	36
Taking responsibility for mistakes	45	27	34
Being dependable	45	31	43
Being well groomed	34	19	32
Managing my own money	36	19	29
Saving for what I want	31	20	29
Getting along on a certain amount of money	33	21	25

* Only employability skills which showed relatively large differences are included.

Fully nine out of ten Hispanic employees make new friends on the job, and 61 percent feel they get along better with people. Forty percent reported that their social life is about the same as before, and an equal proportion (38 percent) feel it has changed. One third reported, however, that they don't see their families as much as they would like. Working in fast food jobs, therefore, seems to be a "mixed bag" for Hispanic employees in terms of their social lives and their friends. We also find that over one-quarter of the Hispanic employees feel that they get along better with their parents since working at their fast food jobs.

How do the significant others of these Hispanic employees feel about their working at fast food jobs? The answer to this question is found in Table 10.

Table 10

PERCEIVED ATTITUDES OF SIGNIFICANT OTHERS FOR HISPANIC EMPLOYEES

Significant Other	% Approving
Mother	68
Father	66
Sibling	61
Spouse *	62
Teacher	70
School counselor	63
Friends	67

* Calculated for only those employees who are married.

The table shows that a large proportion of Hispanic parents approve of their children's fast food employment. Sixty-eight percent of mothers and 66 percent of fathers approve; only 7 percent of mothers and 15 percent of fathers disapprove of their children working at fast food jobs. Siblings (61 percent), spouses (62 percent), friends (67 percent), teachers (70 percent), and counselors (63 percent) also approve of these Hispanic employees working at their fast food jobs. We would conclude from these findings that each category of significant others of Hispanic employees generally approves of these employees' working at fast food jobs.

Another aspect of the effects of fast food employment is the fast food employees' sense of job satisfaction. Sixty-seven percent of Hispanic fast food employees indicated that they were satisfied with their fast food jobs. Twenty percent were dissatisfied. As a group, Hispanic employees are more satisfied than are other employees (61 percent of White and 56 percent of Black employees are satisfied). A number of subdimensions of satisfaction were also looked at. We found the following for Hispanic employees:

- 68 percent enjoy working in the fast food restaurant,
- 52 percent are proud to work there,
- 12 percent are embarrassed to work there,
- 60 percent like the job more now than when they started,
- 22 percent like the job less now than when they started,
- 25 percent are bored working there,
- 44 percent feel they are not adequately paid for the job done,
- 86 percent like their coworkers, and
- 70 percent like most of their customers.

As with the overall assessment of job satisfaction, the findings on the subdimensions of job satisfaction suggest that a majority of Hispanic fast food employees are satisfied with their jobs. The only area of dissatisfaction is the pay. These employees do not feel they are adequately paid for the jobs that they do.

Future Goals in the Fast Food Industry

Another objective of this study was to learn about the plans of Hispanic fast food employees. Earlier we discussed the mobility goals of these employees in terms of education. Here we look at the mobility goals both within the store they work at and within the company. Almost two-thirds of the Hispanic employees want a more responsible position in the restaurant, with smaller proportions who would like to become assistant managers (44 percent) and managers (38 percent). Over half feel that they have a good chance to move up within the restaurant.

Hispanic (and Black) employees were found more likely to aspire to higher level positions than do White employees. This may be due to differences in perceptions about the overall labor market. We assume that larger proportions of Hispanic (and Black) employees aspire to higher positions within the restaurant because they believe their chances for career mobility and security are not so good outside the fast food industry. White employees, on the other hand, are more likely to consider other career options as realistic. Local and national economic conditions may be affecting the mobility goals of these employees. Hispanics, who often find themselves in the lowest level jobs, may view the fast food industry as their means of mobility, and, as a result, they are more likely than White employees to aspire to more responsible and higher level positions within the fast food restaurant.

Over half (54 percent) of these Hispanic employees say they would like to move up to a more responsible position in the company, while only 17 percent say they would not like to move up in the company. Three out of ten Hispanic employees report that they would like to become executives, compared with 38 percent who say they would not like such a position. Hispanics were more likely than Whites to want to move up in the company, but no real difference was found with regard to being an executive in the company.

Recommendations

We begin by focusing on immediate actions that could be taken by fast food employers to improve the work experience for Hispanic and other employees at the store level. It is likely that the implementation of the following recommendations would not only enhance the work experience for the employees but would also result in a better operated and perhaps more productive unit for the employer.

1. Store Management

The importance of the manager and assistant manager(s), and the employees' perception of how they run the store, cannot be overemphasized. The manager and assistant manager(s) set the tone for the work environment and determine, in large measure, the quality of the work experience for the employees under them. Two issues appear to be key for all hourly employees in regard to management: fairness in application of company/store policies and sensitivity to the concerns of hourly employees ("people" skills). Based on the study findings, supported by anecdotal information provided by survey respondents, the following actions related to these two issues are recommended:

1a. Managers and assistant managers should enforce all company/franchisee policies in an equitable, uniform fashion. This is particularly important to hourly employees in relation to pay raises. Policies regarding when raises are to be given, the amount of each raise, and any special conditions governing the awarding of raises should be uniformly adhered to by all management personnel. If there is no standard policy regarding pay raises, as well as other areas such as fringe benefits and termination, such policies should be developed and implemented in each store

1b. Managers and assistant managers should ensure that the scheduling of hours to be worked is done through a process as fair and equitable as possible. Scheduling should be done on some impartial basis—perhaps priority could be established by length of employment or pay level. Of additional concern to hourly employees is a guarantee of work for a minimum number of hours each week. Every effort should be made to accommodate employees' requests for a minimum number of hours. In addition, attempts should be made, whenever possible, to schedule convenient work hours for those employees who are both attending school and working.

1c. Criteria for selection of managers, assistant managers, and manager trainees should include strong "people" skills and sensitivity to the needs of Hispanic and Black employees. Applicants should be screened for the ability to deal well with employees under pressured conditions, and should exhibit good human relations skills, not just task management skills.

When looking for more managers and assistant managers, hourly employees in the store should be the first people considered. They not only know the pertinent aspects of management but they know what works best when dealing with hourly employees. Given Hispanic employees' aspirations to move up in the restaurant and company, they should be offered increased opportunities for management training.

1d. Management training should include "how to manage people"—employer/employee relations and sensitization to the needs of employees and customers. Courses might include communications skills, training techniques, counseling, community relations, performance appraisal, and sensitization to the culture and needs of specific groups of employees and customers.

2. Hourly Pay and Fringe Benefits

The issue of "overworked and underpaid" is clearly of concern to a large number of Hispanic hourly fast food employees. Many of them feel that the wages they earn are not adequate compensation for the work that they do. The recommendations that follow relate both to pay and fringe benefits and are aimed at reducing employee dissatisfaction with the total compensation package.

2a. As noted earlier in the management section, there should be a standard company/franchisee policy regarding pay raises. This policy should state when raises are to be given, the amount of each raise, and any special conditions governing the awarding of raises (e.g., whether the employee is required to pass a written or oral test in order to qualify for a raise). Such a policy might be based simply on length of employment in the store (as is evidently the most widely used current criterion in the industry) or, preferably, on a combination of merit plus length of employment. If tests are a requirement for obtaining a raise, attention should be paid to ensure that such tests are not culturally biased and do not favor any particular racial/ethnic group.

2b. Alternative forms of compensation for hourly employees should be considered, and company policies should be implemented uniformly in all stores. Some companies/franchisees already offer incentives, mainly at the management level, such as bonuses or a share of the profits, if a certain volume of sales is reached in the store. Consideration should be given to offering similar incentives to hourly employees.

2c. Very few companies offer any educational benefits to their hourly employees. Study findings indicate that the educational aspirations of these employees are quite high (40 percent of the Hispanic employees expect to attend a two-year college; a similar percentage expect to attend a four-year college). Companies may want to consider offering financial assistance/scholarships for further education/training to hourly employees as an additional enhancement of the total wage and benefits package. They may also consider offering remedial education opportunities to those employees with low educational attainments.

3. Mobility Within the Restaurant and Company

Study findings indicate that a majority of Hispanic hourly employees would like to move up to a more responsible position in the store and in the company. This leads to the following recommendations:

3a. Most fast food companies currently recruit their management trainees from outside their restaurants. Given the high level of interest in promotion among hourly employees, companies should recruit management trainees from the ranks of the restaurants' hourly employees. A career ladder could be developed for progression from entry level jobs through supervisory/crew chief positions into administrative and managerial training slots, with eventual promotion into management level jobs. Early training could take place within the store with supplemental training offered at the regional or national level.

3b. The study revealed that the desire for promotion within the restaurant and the company is particularly strong among Hispanics. Companies should make every effort to promote from their ranks and offer opportunities for management training to interested Hispanic hourly employees. This is particularly true for stores located in areas with large Hispanic populations and for stores with high proportions of Hispanic employees.

The above recommendations focused on actions that could be taken by fast food employers (and by other employers with large numbers of "secondary labor market" entry level jobs). We now turn to the broader recommendations that grow out of the study findings.

4. Links to Education and the Community

The study findings show that for the vast majority of fast food employees, there is no link between their jobs and their schooling. Although about one-fifth overall (and one-quarter of the Hispanic employees) report that they make special scheduling arrangements with their schools in order to work at the fast food restaurant, very few receive academic credit for their work or report that their supervisors provide reports to their schools on how well they do at work.

4a. Given the fact that fast food employees are learning both job related and general employability skills on the job, many of which are applicable to other spheres of life, schools should be attempting to integrate and reinforce this experience through the curriculum and counseling. Many of the skills that fast food employees gain from the job (e.g., teamwork, dealing with people, awareness of how a business runs) could be incorporated into existing career education programs, using the actual fast food work experience rather than hypothetical work situations as a basis for educational exploration. Counselors and advisors should also encourage students to consider fast food jobs for part-time work experience, particularly for those young people who have little opportunity to gain employability skills through other experiences.

4b. Earlier the high educational aspirations of these Hispanic fast food employees were noted, as well as strong interest in moving up to more responsible positions in fast food restaurants. There appears to be a mutuality of interests that would be served by closer links between school administrators of work experience, cooperative education, and distributive education programs, on the one hand, and fast food employers on the other, with the greatest benefit accruing to the student/fast food employee. For example, programs could be developed which provide the student/employee with progressively more responsible work in the restaurant, supported by coordinated coursework and store training, with promotion into a management slot at the restaurant upon graduation from high school. Similar programs could also be conducted at the community college level, offering participants the opportunity to move up through the fast food company. It is likely that such programs would be of particular interest to Hispanic employees desiring to move up in their stores or companies.

4c. Job search and job placement personnel and counselors (inside the schools and in the community) should use the study findings to advise potential fast food employees on the nature of the fast food work experience. The data show that such work can be satisfying, especially if the prospective employee knows what to look for in a particular restaurant, but that it can also be demanding. Counselors should advise potential fast food employees to ask questions regarding pay and fringe benefit policies, opportunities for promotion, and scheduling processes. Prospective employees should also be encouraged to talk to current employees of the restaurant regarding the manager and assistant manager(s) and their relationships with hourly employees. It would also be beneficial for the counselor or placement person to establish contact with the fast food companies and store managers serving the community. These companies are almost always recruiting hourly employees and would likely welcome referrals from a reliable source. Establishment of such a relationship would give the counselor the opportunity to determine first-hand what the quality of work experience in a particular store or company is likely to be and whether the needs of Hispanic students will be met and well-served by the fast food work experience.

Summary and Conclusions

This report has focused on Hispanic employment in fast food jobs. We have looked at the profile of Hispanic employees, the nature of their jobs, the training they received, and their supervision. In addition, we have tried to assess some of the effects of the fast food job on the skills, plans, and attitudes of Hispanic employees. We also compared Hispanic employees with other employees with respect to a number of these factors.

We found a number of differences between Hispanic and other employees, but we also found a large degree of similarity across racial/ethnic groups of fast food employees. We discovered that a "dual labor market" apparently exists within the fast food store. For many Hispanic employees, the fast food job is best characterized as being part of the "secondary labor market." For a large proportion, however, the fast food job is considered to be part of the "primary labor market." Together, in one store, we found Hispanic youth who were working part-time, to earn money to help support their families, or for other things while they were going to school, or to save for their future education, working side by side with other youth and older employees who were working full-time to help support themselves or their own families and who considered their fast food jobs as their occupations or as early stages in a hoped for career in the fast food industry or some other related field.

We found a surprising amount of job stability, relatively high levels of job satisfaction, hourly wage rates above the minimum wage, large proportions of Hispanic employees who work to help support their families or themselves, and considerable impact on the development of employability and job skills. This is not to say that the entire picture of fast food employment for Hispanic employees is a positive one. Our findings suggest that Hispanic employees feel that they are not adequately paid and that they are not given enough work hours, resulting in their not receiving certain fringe benefits.

Despite these problems, the picture that emerges from this study is one which would characterize the fast food job experience as a relatively positive one for Hispanic hourly fast food employees.

Executive Summary:
Programs for Adolescent Hispanic Parents in Connecticut

Hyung C. Chung *and* **Saúl Sibirsky**

In 1982-83, the Urban Management Institute of the University of Bridgeport surveyed 500 Hispanic households with 1,876 members residing in Connecticut. It was the first survey of its kind to generate detailed socioeconomic and demographic information about the rapidly growing Hispanic population in Connecticut.

Based on this survey, the UMI prepared a report focusing on the problems of Hispanic adolescent pregnancies, childbirths, and parents. The study was funded by the Hispanic Policy Development Project. Major findings follow:

A. Number of Adolescent Parents in Connecticut

As of 1983, of the 136,000 Hispanic people in Connecticut—more than 70 percent of them Puerto Ricans—some 18,000 (13.2 percent) were between the ages of 16 and 21. Of these, roughly 3,500, or one out of five youths, were adolescent parents. The majority of these 3,500 were young mothers. This may mean that as many as two out of five female Hispanic youths have children of their own.

It was also estimated that over 60 percent of Hispanic teenage parents (aged between 16 and 19) had out-of-wedlock children. The figure was approximately 50 percent for the 16-to-21 age group. This implies that more than half of all babies born every year to Hispanic youths could be out-of-wedlock babies.

B. Impact of Teenage Childbirths

TAB (teenage birth) mothers are defined as women who bear their first child in their teens. Non-TAB mothers are those who bear their first child after the age of 20. A comparison of various characteristics of TAB and non-TAB mothers follows:

- The probability of remaining single was two times higher for TAB mothers (23 percent) than for non-TAB mothers (9 percent).
- The probability of mother being a household head was greater among TAB mothers (52 percent) than among non-TAB mothers (42 percent).
- TAB mothers had on average more children than non-TAB mothers.
- The high school dropout rate (from 9th, 10th, and 11th grades) among TAB mothers (33 percent) was three times greater than the rate (9 percent) for non-TAB mothers.
- The median number of school years completed by TAB mothers was 8.0, compared to 9.7 for non-TAB mothers.
- Thirty percent of TAB and 22 percent of non-TAB mothers indicated that they spoke English "poorly" or "not at all."
- Thirty-two percent of TAB mothers and 50 percent of non-TAB mothers participated in the labor force.

It was also found that the ill effects of teenage childbirth were greatly magnified among low-income Hispanic women. For example, 44 percent of low-income TAB mothers had never married, 82 percent were household heads, and 11 percent participated in the labor force. Indeed teenage childbirths among low-income youths were found to be catastrophic.

C. Female Household Heads

In Connecticut, 40 percent of Hispanic households were headed by women, and out-of-wedlock childbearing was a principal contributor to the increasing number of households headed by women. The long-term outlook for many low-income adolescent parents is to become single-woman household heads.

A comparison of selected characteristics of female and male household heads reveals the following facts:

- Female household heads had on average 2.5 children, while male household heads had 1.8 children. The majority of female household heads were raising their children alone without the fathers, while the majority of male household heads had their wives.

- The median number of school years completed by female household heads was 8.9 compared to 11.6 for male household heads.
- Forty-seven percent of female and 27 percent of male household heads did not have high school diplomas.
- Fifty percent of female and 41 percent of male household heads had come to the U.S. mainland since 1970.
- Thirty percent of female and 17 percent of male household heads were classified as limited in English proficiency.
- Thirty-five percent of female and 68 percent of male household heads were in the labor force.
- Fifty-four percent of female and 31 percent of male household heads earned less than $200 per week, roughly a poverty-level income for a family of four.
- Only 28 percent of female household heads identified "wages and salaries" as their primary sources of income, and more than 65 percent of them mentioned "Social Security," "public assistance," "disability benefits," and "food stamps" as primary income sources. In contrast, 72 percent of male households stated that "wages and salaries" were their main income sources.

D. Husbands of Teenage-Childbirth Women

Twenty-three percent of Hispanic TAB mothers had not married. Of those who had married, many were widowed (4 percent) or divorced (10 percent) or separated (19 percent). Only 42 percent of TAB mothers were living with their spouses. The following comparisons were made between the husbands of TAB women and the husbands of non-TAB women who had borne their first child between the ages of 20 and 29:

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- Ninety-eight percent of husbands of non-TAB women were identified as heads of household, while 90 percent of husbands of TAB women were so identified.
- Four percent of TAB women's husbands and 13 percent of non-TAB women's husbands were born on the U.S. mainland.
- TAB women's husbands dropped out of high school three times more frequently (29 percent) than did non-TAB women's husbands (9 percent).
- The median number of school years completed by TAB women's husbands was much lower (8.4 years) than the median number for non-TAB women's husbands (11.7 years).
- More TAB women's husbands (29 percent) were unemployed than non-TAB women's husbands (10 percent).

It appears that TAB mothers on average married husbands whose educational attainment was less than their own. In contrast, non-TAB women on average married men with equal or even slightly higher educational attainment. Note that the median number of school years completed by TAB women was 8.7, while the figure for their husbands was 8.4 years. In comparison, both non-TAB women and their husbands had completed 11.1 years.

E. Theories on Adolescent Parents

It was clear that teenage childbirth increases the probability that the parents will become or remain poor. It appears that early childbirth directly affects the total number of children born to a woman, her marital status, her educational attainment, and the type of man she may marry. In turn, these factors affect employment status and ultimately family income.

Although we understand some of the effects of early childbirth, we do not as yet know the complex causes of teenage pregnancies. It is clear, however, that the whole issue of adolescent pregnancies and adolescent parents must be discussed in the context of a vicious-cycle theory of poverty: poverty breeds poverty, and the adolescent parent issue can be treated as a symptom of poverty as well as one of the causes of poverty.

In conclusion, we can say that programs to address adolescent pregnancy and parenthood must come under the broader mantles of family planning and anti-poverty programs. In terms of family planning, the objective is to enable individual families to produce the number of children they want at the time they want them. In terms of anti-poverty programs, the objective is to enable adolescents to mature into economically self-sufficient adults.

F. Policy Implications and Proposals

A survey has indicated that there are no overall statewide policies or well-funded programs aimed at adolescent parents as a target group. However, local school districts have been operating limited Teenage Parents Programs.

This study proposes that three major programs be instituted, to integrate planned parenthood and career development components. These programs are (1) an Adolescent Program, (2) an Adolescent Family Program, and (3) an Adult Program.

The primary focus of the **Adolescent Program** would be the prevention of teenage pregnancies. It calls for the promotion of family planning and sex education, family planning counseling, detection of potential school dropouts, an enrollment campaign for migrant youths who otherwise do not enroll in school, and various measures to improve the self-image and strengthen the respect of Hispanic youths among their peers and in school.

The **Adolescent Family Program** is intended to ensure that adolescent parents will not abridge their adolescent lives and will complete high school. The program must offer reasons to stay in school, improving the young parents' prospects for a better life and supporting their efforts to achieve self-sufficiency and a rewarding family life. The program includes measures to provide adequate prenatal and postnatal care, counseling to avert subsequent unwanted pregnancies, child care at school, and the opportunity to learn homemaking as well as child development skills. It aims to incorporate the adolescent fathers and the families of the adolescent parents into the program.

The report also proposes an **Adult Program** creating federally-funded adult vocational and technical schools in municipalities with a heavy concentration of economically or educationally disadvantaged people. This recommendation is based on the premise that the education and enlightenment of parents of the at-risk youths and teenage parents is critically important in order to make both the preventive program and the adolescent family program work. The AVTS would institutionalize various compensatory programs now in existence and would add new elements to serve the educational and vocational needs of adults who do not have basic skills or high school diplomas, the welfare mothers who want to work but are without skills, the unemployed with marginal skills, and the adolescent school dropouts who seek remedial education and skill training. The AVTS also would serve the needs of special target groups, such as those who are limited in English proficiency, adolescent parents who prefer AVTS instead of regular schools, and other adults who have missed the opportunities of regular schools.

Suggested Plan for Reviewing the Status of Data for Monitoring

The Progress and Outcomes of Secondary Schooling for Hispanics

Dorothy Waggoner

Considerable data are available for the study of the status of Hispanics in U.S. society. The Census Bureau has employed its current self-identification terminology in the Current Population Survey (CPS) since 1973. The 1980 Census contained a self-identification question on the 100 percent form. National surveys conducted by the federal government also make provision for separate data for Hispanics. The purpose of this paper is to outline a plan for reviewing the status of these data to determine the extent to which information on Hispanics is available (1) to construct a series of indicators to monitor the progress and outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics and (2) to classify the findings separately for various groups of interest, namely, the subgroups of Hispanics: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and other Hispanics; Hispanics born in the United States and those born abroad; those with different language characteristics, including language background, language usage, and English proficiency; and Hispanic males and females.

The following sections describe the proposed classification variables, i.e., the ethnic subgroups, nativity, language characteristics and sex, and the proposed indicators. The final section consists of a sample matrix for examination of data needed to employ the indicators to monitor the progress and outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics. In the matrix, data can be categorized for each of the classification variables as (1) available and published, or (2) available in one or more data bases but not published, and therefore, for which special tabulations would be required, both by source of the data, and (3) non-existent and which would probably need to be especially collected.

Proposed Classification Variables for Monitoring the Progress and Outcomes of Secondary Schooling for Hispanics

Hispanic subgroup

I. Mexican Americans
II. Puerto Ricans
III. Cuban Americans
IV. Other Hispanics

Nativity

I. Native, born in one of the 50 states or the District of Columbia
II. Native, born in Puerto Rico or another outlying area
    a. Time in the United States
III. Born in a foreign country
    a. Time in the United States

Language characteristics

I. In a household in which only English is spoken
II. In a household in which Spanish or another language is spoken
    a. Speaks English at home
        i. Limited in English proficiency
        ii. Not limited in English proficiency
    b. Speaks Spanish or another non-English language at home
        i. Limited in English proficiency
        ii. Not limited in English proficiency
    c. Does not speak English at all

Sex

I. Male
II. Female

Age

Hispanic Subgroups

Hispanics are not a unified group. At least four subgroups can be distinguished: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and Other Hispanics. The groups differ in their immigration histories, in their language characteristics, and in their socioeconomic characteristics. The indicators must be used to monitor the progress and outcomes separately for these groups in order to reveal the disparities among them as well as among majority non-Hispanic youth.

The Census and the CPS contain questions to elicit self-reporting of Hispanic subgroup membership. Other national surveys, such as "High School and Beyond" (HSB), also provide for the separation of data by subgroup. Where separate data by subgroup are not available, this will be noted in the matrix.

Nativity

Much data on Hispanics in the past have not distinguished between recent arrivals and those who have lived in the United States for several generations. It has been assumed that Hispanics are largely immigrants and that their problems are the problems of all new immigrants which will disappear when the group learns English and becomes assimilated. Even Puerto Ricans, citizens since 1917, are sometimes perceived as foreigners. The misconceptions have been confounded by exaggerated reports of the numbers of people from Mexico and Central America who enter the United States without documentation. The proposed separation of data for persons born in one of the 50 states or the District of Columbia, persons born in Puerto Rico or another outlying U.S. area, and persons born in a foreign country will demonstrate the extent to which the large majority of Hispanics are native-born citizens of the United States. Together with information on time in the United States for Puerto Rican-born and foreign-born individuals, it will demonstrate the extent to which nativity and time in the United States affect language characteristics, and the extent to which Hispanic youth born abroad may or may not have different experiences with U.S. schooling and achieve outcomes different from Hispanic youth born in this country.

Language Characteristics

Not all Hispanics have Spanish language backgrounds or speak Spanish. Hispanic ethnic groups have different degrees of Spanish language exposure and usage. Language background and usage are related to nativity. Hispanics who were born in Puerto Rico or in Mexico, Cuba, or another foreign country, are more likely to come from homes in which Spanish is spoken and are more likely to speak Spanish rather than English as their usual language (**NCES** 1978). Language usage is related to proficiency in English. Language minority individuals who usually speak their home languages are more likely than language minority individuals who usually speak English to have limited proficiency in English. However, some language minority people who usually speak English are limited in English, and some language minority people who usually speak their home language are not limited in English (**O'Malley** 1981). Thus, neither language usage nor language background can be used to identify those individuals who lack the school-related or job-related skills in English, including reading and writing, as well as speaking and understanding, needed to achieve their full potential in the English-speaking mainstream.

The 1980 Census provides for a three-fold division of the population on the basis of responses to the question on language spoken at home by individuals. By combining the data for each household, it can be estimated how many people live in households in which only English is spoken, how many speak only English at home in households in which one or more other people speak Spanish or another language, and how many speak Spanish or another non-English language in households in which Spanish or other non-English languages are spoken. The people who live in households in which one or more individuals speak languages other than English are the non-English language background or language minority people identifiable from the 1980 Census. The number of people who do not speak English at all can be estimated from the responses to the question asking for a rating of the English-speaking ability of those who speak non-English languages at home. Although it would also be helpful to know how many individuals live in bilingual households—households in which some or all household members speak both languages at home—except for those who do not speak English at all, a Spanish or other non-English response to the Census individual language question does not mean that the individual never speaks English at home. Information on bilingual versus monolingual households is available from restricted data bases, such as that for "High School and Beyond."

The 1980 Census asked for self-rating of English-speaking ability of those individuals reported to speak languages other than English at home. Speaking ability is one of the skills needed to succeed in school or on the job. However, the responses to this question were never intended to take the place of objective information on English proficiency, including proficiency in reading and writing as well as speaking and understanding, for all individuals in language minority households. For this purpose, the Bureau of the Census conducted a survey for the Department of Education in summer 1982, in which a sample of respondents to the 1980 Census language questions was tested in English proficiency in school-related and job-related contexts. The findings of this survey will provide limited English proficiency (LEP) ratios for application to the 1980 Census data to determine the numbers of children and adults who live in language minority households who have limited English proficiency. The extent to which it will be possible to distinguish groups by English proficiency for separate examination of their standings on the indicators of the progress and outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics in the 1980 Census is not clear at this time. However, this should not obscure the fact that English proficiency is the crucial characteristic determining success or failure in the English-speaking mainstream. Speaking Spanish or another non-English language or having a Spanish language or other non-English language background are variables which are independent of English proficiency.

Sex

Data for many educational indicators differ for girls and boys, men and women. Data should be separated by sex in order to determine the extent to which the progress and outcomes of secondary schooling differ for Hispanic males and females.

Age

The age group will vary by indicator. For example, for preschool enrollment, data for three- and four-year-olds will be examined; for kindergarten enrollment, data for five-year-olds will be examined, and so on.

Proposed Indicators for Monitoring the Progress and Outcomes of Secondary Schooling for Hispanic Youth

Input and context variables

I. Socioeconomic factors
  a. Family income and poverty
  b. Socioeconomic status (SES)
II. Place of residence and migration status
  a. Innercity urban, suburban or rural residence
  b. Migrant or non-migrant

Pre-high school experience

I. School enrollment rates
II. Delayed education

High school experience

I. High school program
  a. Type of program
  b. Courses taken
II. Achievement
  a. Grades
  b. National assessment scores
III. Aspirations

Outcomes

I. Dropout rates
II. High school completion rates
III. Higher education participation rates
  a. Enrollments in college
    1. Type of college
    2. Field of study
  b. College completion
  c. Associate degrees
  d. Bachelor's degrees
  e. Advanced and professional degrees
IV. Rates of other post-secondary participation
  a. Enrollments in vocational education programs
  b. Enrollments in adult education programs
V. Labor force participation and unemployment
  a. Labor force participation rates
  b. Unemployment rates
  c. Duration of unemployment
  d. Discouraged worker rates
VI. Work experience
  a. Type of occupation or employment
  b. Occupational overqualification
  c. Earnings for educational level

Input and Context Variables

I. Socioeconomic Factors

a. Family Income and Poverty

Definition: The median family income of families with school-age children. The proportion of school-age children who live in families with incomes below the poverty level. These data can be compared across groups and over time.

Discussion: Data on median family income and poverty status of groups and families are regularly collected by the Bureau of the Census. Family income, because it does not differentiate large families from small families, understates the disparities in income between the majority and minorities, who tend to have large families. However, the poverty level is set according to the size and composition of families. It is also adjusted for the inflation rate to permit comparisons over time. Family income and poverty level information is available for female-headed families for comparison with all others. For a discussion of problems with indicators of family income inequity, see **U.S. Commission on Civil Rights** (1978:47-53).

b. Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Definition: The proportion of a group with high, medium, or low levels of educational background, employment in professional or technical occupations, and income. The concept of socioeconomic status (SES) applied to school-age children is usually based upon some combination of father's and mother's education, father's or family breadwinner's occupational level, and family income.

Discussion: Numerous studies have shown the importance of socioeconomic status in the educational achievement of students. Some of these studies have also suggested that the socioeconomic status of language minority children may have more to do with their failure to thrive in English-medium schools than language factors do. Although most of these studies have failed to distinguish between language background and use of a non-English language on the one hand and proficiency in the English language skills needed to succeed in schools designed for English-speaking majority children on the other, enough questions have been raised about the effect of SES on the school achievement of language minority children to make this variable essential to the study of the progress and the outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics.

Concepts of SES can be extremely complex. In HSB, five variables were used: father's occupation scaled for prestige of the occupation and its financial rewards, father's education, mother's education, family income, and the presence in the home of possessions thought to be indicative of advantaged environments, such as reference books, newspapers, television sets, dishwashers, etc. A recent study which examined the comparative effects of home language background and SES on achievement used five variables consisting of father's and mother's education, the occupations of the parents, family income, and race. In that study, children with high SES were those whose parents had more than four years of higher education, had family incomes of $36,000 or more, had at least one parent in a professional, managerial or technical occupation, and were of the white race (**Rosenthal** *et al.* 1981). An early study of the effect of SES on achievement using the 1965 Coleman data gave the heaviest weights to father's and mother's education and father's occupational level (**Mosteller and Moynihan** 1972).

II. Place of Residence and Migration Status

a. Innercity Urban, Suburban or Rural Residence

Definition: The proportion of the population which resides in innercity metropolitan areas, in suburban areas, and in rural areas.

Discussion: Hispanic subgroups differ on this measure, with Puerto Ricans being largely innercity metropolitan, Cubans largely suburban, and many Mexican Americans residing in rural areas. There may also be differences in language characteristics according to place of residence. Place of residence is correlated with SES, but there may be differences in the proportions of Hispanics by SES and place of residence and those of non-Hispanics by these measures.

b. Migrant or Non-Migrant

Definition: The proportion of the school-age population that meets the definition of a migratory or formerly migratory child in the Migrant Education Regulations administered by the U.S. Department of Education, Grants to State Education Agencies to meet the special needs of migratory children, Part 204 of Chapter II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The proportion of the population, aged 14 or older, who, in a given year, are away from their usual places of residence at least overnight to do farmwork for cash wages or salary in another county, or who do farmwork for cash wages or salary in two or more counties but have no usual place of residence.

A migratory child for the purposes of the Migrant Education Program is one whose parent or guardian is a migratory agricultural worker or a migratory fisher and who has moved within a given year from one school district to another to enable the child, the parent or the guardian to obtain temporary or seasonal employment in an agricultural or fishing activity. Such a child continues to be eligible for program services for five years following the year in which the last move took place.

Discussion: Whether children remain in one school district for all or most of their school careers or move from one district to another obviously affects the extent to which they are able to progress normally from one grade to the next. Children who move with their families from one county to another or one state to another to follow the crops during a single year are in special jeopardy. Their schooling is interrupted, not just from grade to grade, but within grades.

Unfortunately, data to identify children who change school districts because of the demands of temporary or seasonal employment are not available in the 1980 Census or in other data bases, such as the CPS. HSB has a question about the number of times the sampled sophomores and seniors have changed schools since fifth grade, and it also has general information about parents' or guardians' occupations, but not their migratory status. Information about the numbers and locations of the children who meet the Migrant Education Program's definition are available from its Migrant

Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS). This information comes from the school districts which enroll migrant children and it is only as accurate as individual school districts make it. The information cannot be linked with other data sources.

National data on migrant agricultural workers are available from the CPS which is undertaken in odd years in December for the U.S. Department of Agriculture. This CPS contains family and household information, including the number of children under 14 in each household, by family relationship, sex and age, and the number of those aged eight to 13 who did farmwork for at least one day for cash wages during the year of the survey. It contains employment and labor force information, information on the number of years of schooling completed, and information on farmwork, by age and sex, for those 14 and older. The data are available separately for Hispanics. Data are not available to estimate the number of children under 14 who move with farm worker families or the number 14 and older who move but do not themselves work as migrant farmworkers.

Pre-High School Experience

I. School Enrollment Rates

Definition: The proportion of a given age group in the population that is enrolled in an appropriate level of school, e.g., the proportions of three- and four-year-olds enrolled in preschool, of five-year-olds enrolled in kindergarten, of six to 13-year-olds enrolled in elementary school, etc.

Discussion: School enrollment rates for Hispanics provide background information on the educational experiences of Hispanics in comparison with the majority in the years leading up to high school. How many Hispanics attend preschool or kindergarten in comparison with the majority? How many are in school at all? How many are enrolled in the junior high school grades, immediately preceeding high school? The Census Bureau regularly collects enrollment data in its October Current Population Survey (CPS). Rates can, therefore, be compared over time.

It should be noted that the data called for by this indicator are household survey data such as those collected by the Bureau of the Census. These data (1) provide for a common definition of the population groups of interest and common data-collection methods; (2) provide information on the whole population, including students enrolled in private schools and school-age children not enrolled at all; (3) provide information on a number of related variables, such as nativity, family income, place of residence, i.e., urban innercity, suburban or rural, etc., and (4) avoid the problem of transfers and re-enrollments after absence from school. However, unless the data come from a decennial census, they do not provide separate information by state or smaller geographic area.

The other kind of enrollment data which is regularly collected and published is data from school district surveys, such as that in NCES' "Common Core of Data" (CCD) system. Data from such sources make possible comparison by school district and state. However, the data include only public school enrollment; transfers and re-enrollments after absence from school confound the comparisons, and the definitions and methodology may vary because the data are provided individually by school districts.

II. Delayed Education

Definition: The proportion of a given group of students who are enrolled two or more years below their modal or expected grade level. This may also be defined as the proportion of a given group who are two or more years older than the modal or expected age for the grade in which they are enrolled. The modal grade or age is the grade or age of most individuals in a group, as actually calculated from the data. The expected grade or age, which is not necessarily the same, is eighth grade for 14-year-olds, ninth grade for 15-year-olds, tenth grade for 16-year-olds, etc., if the data are collected in the spring. In "High School and Beyond," the modal age for the sophomore cohort was 15; 90 percent of the sophomores were age 15 or 16 (**Hirano-Nakanishi** 1983:14).

Discussion: The delayed education rate is closely related to the dropout rate. Students who are older than their classmates, as a result of grade retention or late entry into school, are more likely to drop out than those attending classes with their age mates. The delayed education rate of Hispanics is a factor in the early dropout of Hispanic youth, as suggested by Hirano-Nakanishi in her examination of data from the "Survey of Income and Education" (SIE) (1983). Many Hispanics reach age 16 before they get to tenth grade.

Data to calculate delayed education rates are available from the decennial census, the CPS, and other national surveys.

High School Experience

I. High School Program

a. Type of Program

Definition: The proportions of a given group of high school students enrolled in academic or college-preparatory programs, general programs, vocational education programs, bilingual or bicultural education programs, and programs for the gifted and the talented.

Discussion: "High School and Beyond" provides information on how many high school sophomores and seniors are (or were) enrolled in various types of programs offered in U.S. high schools. The proportions of Hispanic youth enrolled in these programs can be compared with the proportions of majority youth enrolled. Enrollment in academic programs or programs for the gifted and talented provides a measure of the extent to which Hispanics have access to the most intellectually challenging and academically rewarding offerings in their schools or instead are found primarily in general or vocational education programs. Enrollment in bilingual or bicultural education programs shows the extent to which their first language skills are being preserved and developed. Linked with achievement data, it can also provide insights on the degree to which bilinguality is intellectually enriching for Hispanic youth who have opportunities to develop both English and Spanish.

b. Courses Taken

Definition: The proportion of a given group of high school students who have taken math and science courses, advanced or honors courses, or remedial English or other remedial courses. The proportions of students by years of math or science taken.

Discussion: HSB has considerable data on the courses taken by high school students. This information provides a further measure of the extent to which Hispanic high school students have access to intellectually challenging courses or are engaged in make-up activities such as those in remedial English or math.

II. Achievement

a. Grades

Definition: The proportions of high school seniors receiving grades of mostly B or better, half B and half C, or mostly C or worse. The proportions of high school sophomores receiving such grades.

Discussion: The "National Longitudinal Study" and HSB contain information on the grades received by high school sophomores and seniors. These indicate the extent to which schools and teachers perceive that students are mastering the subject matter to which they are exposed. Since HSB has English self-rating questions, grades may be examined for groups with varying degrees of self-rated English proficiency.

b. National Assessment Scores

Definition: The mean scores in vocabulary, reading, math, science, writing, etc., of high school seniors and sophomores. Achievement in social studies, science, mathematics, career and occupational development and reading, as measured by the percentage point difference from the national averages obtained by 13-year-olds and 17-year-olds.

Discussion: Mean scores in vocabulary, reading, etc., are available from HSB. Achievement of 13-year-olds and 17-year-olds is measured in the "National Assessment of Educational Progress" (NAEP). Both of these studies now have adequate Hispanic samples. They have been designed to measure the achievement of students in subject areas considered to be important. Data from HSB can be examined in the light of self-rated English proficiency, as indicated above for the information on grades. A similar means to make distinctions based on English proficiency should be devised for NAEP data in the future. Otherwise, achievement in the subject areas purportedly being measured by NAEP will continue to be confounded with proficiency in English.

III. Aspirations

Definition: The proportions of high school students by amount and kind of post-secondary schooling expected. The proportion who believe that they have the ability to complete college.

Discussion: This information, also from HSB, shows the extent to which high school sophomores and seniors expect to continue their education beyond high school in academic or vocational programs, and the degree of confidence they have in their abilities as a result of their educational experiences through high school.

Outcomes

I. Dropout Rates

Definition: The proportion of a given age group not enrolled in school and not high school graduates. Dropout rates may be examined over time by disaggregating the data by age group, e.g., rates for 14- to 17-year-olds compared with rates for 18- to 21-year-olds, and rates for 22- to 34-year-olds, etc., or by comparing the same age group in successive surveys.

Discussion: The above definition is a widely used survey definition using data available from the decennial censuses and the CPS. The advantages, and disadvantage, of data from these sources have already been suggested in the section on school enrollment rates. An advantage of the use of this concept over that of school retention, as explained below, is that data are available from one data set. A disadvantage is that the concept of the dropout rate continues to focus attention on the students and their characteristics, rather than on schools as institutions with the responsibility for educating all youth (see **Carter and Segura** 1979).

Because of the high delayed-education rates of Hispanics, the dropout indicator should always be examined together with information on how many years of schooling have been completed by the dropouts. It is of great concern that Hispanics drop out of school at such high rates, but it should be of even greater concern that many drop out before they reach tenth grade or even earlier. It is also important that the limitations of traditional dropout studies, such as HSB, which begin with students in the tenth grade, are recognized. Because Hispanics and other minority youth who reach tenth grade are the "survivors" of the system from which many of their colleagues have already dropped out, their dropout rates after tenth grade are not representative of the rates for their age group in the entire minority population.

An alternate concept which is frequently used to monitor school holding power and dropping out is that of school retention. This is defined as the proportion of a given grade cohort, e.g., fifth graders or ninth graders, who graduate from twelfth grade or as the number per thousand pupiles who entered fifth grade or ninth grade who graduate from the twelfth grade.

School retention rates are usually calculated from school enrollment and graduation statistics provided by school districts in systems such as the "Common Core of Data" (CCD) system. Data must be assembled from separate data sets. For example, to determine the rate of school retention based upon the 1980-81 graduates as a proportion of ninth grade enrollment four years earlier, data must be assembled for 1977 and 1980-81; for 1980-81 graduates as a proportion of fifth grade enrollment eight years earlier, data must be assembled for 1973 and 1980-81. In contrast, dropout rates defined as the proportion of a given group who are not enrolled and have not graduated can be calculated from a single data set.

School retention rates may be used by school districts to estimate the extent to which they are graduating their students. They are also used to make comparisons, such as those by state which NCES released in May 1983 (**Price**). However, since it is impossible to know whether students who leave one school enroll in another or otherwise complete their secondary schooling, sometimes in private schools, school retention rates calculated from public school district surveys do not provide a measure of the extent to which given groups, such as Hispanics, complete or fail to complete high school.

II. High School Completion Rates

Definition: The proportion of a given group that has completed 12 years of schooling. The high school completion rates may be examined over time by comparing rates for the 18- to 21-year-olds, 22- to 34-year-olds, 35- to 44-year-olds, etc., or by comparing the same age group in successive surveys.

Discussion: This is a basic indicator. It is the other side of the picture provided by the dropout rates. Data are available from decennial censuses and the CPS.

III. Higher Education Participation Rates

Enrollments in College

Definition: The proportion of the population of a given group of a given age that is enrolled in college; the proportion of the population of high school graduates of a given group that is enrolled in college. The suggested age group is 18 to 34.

Discussion: High school completion rates and college enrollment rates are basic indicators of outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics. Both indicators are suggested because they provide comparisons at two points: (1) the extent to which Hispanics are enrolled in college in proportion to their population as a whole in comparison with majority students, and (2) the extent to which Hispanics who graduate from high school are enrolled in college in comparison with majority high school graduates. Data are available from the census or the CPS.

Information is available from NCES on the types of institutions attended by college students, i.e., the proportions attending public institutions in comparison with the proportions attending private institutions. Information is also available on field of study. This information is necessary to assess the degree to which Hispanic students' choices may be limited by their high school programs and their financial resources.

b. College Completion

Definition: The proportion of the population of a given group that has completed four or more years of college. College completion rates may be examined over time by comparing data by age group or by comparing data for successive years.

Discussion: This indicator is suggested as a basic measure of the schooling completed by Hispanics, age 25 and older, in comparison with the majority. Data are available from the decennial census and the CPS. However, since we are especially interested in the outcomes of secondary schooling for Hispanics, other more specific indicators of higher education completion are also suggested.

Some institutions are now collecting data on how long it takes for students to complete their degrees. These data suggest that Hispanic students may be interrupting their education for financial reasons to a greater extent than other students. These data would be helpful to complete the picture of Hispanic post-high school experience. They are not available from any national data source.

c. Associate Degrees

Definition: A given group's proportion of the total number of recipients of associate degrees defined as degrees which require at least two years but less than four years of study. The group's proportion can be compared to its proportion in the total population for a given age group and to the proportions of the majority on these measures.

Discussion: This indicator shows the extent to which Hispanics are under or overrepresented among recipients of two-year degrees. Data on degree recipients are available from the NCES/OCR "Earned Degrees Surveys." The proportion of Hispanics or other groups in the population is available from the Census or the CPS.

d. Bachelor's Degrees

Definition: A given group's proportion of the total number of recipients of four-year college degrees. The group's proportion can be compared to its proportion in the total population for a given age group and to the proportions of the majority on this measure.

Discussion: This indicator will show under or over-representation of Hispanics among college graduates. Data on degree recipients are available from the NCES/OCR "Earned Degrees Surveys." The decennial census and the CPS are the sources of the information on the proportions of different groups in the population.

e. Advanced and Professional Degrees

Definition: A given group's proportion of the total number of recipients of advanced and professional degrees, including dentistry, medicine, law, theology, and other fields. The group's proportion can be compared to its proportion in the total population for a given age group and to the proportion of the majority on this measure.

Discussion: This indicator will show under or over-representation of Hispanics among recipients of advanced and professional degrees. Data are available from the NCES/OCR "Earned Degrees Surveys." The general population information is available from the Census and the CPS.

IV. Rates of Other Post-Secondary Education Participation

a. Enrollments in Vocational Education Programs

Definition: A given group's proportion of the total number of participants in post-secondary vocational education programs. The group's proportion can be compared with its proportion in the total population.

Discussion: This indicator has the same function as the indicators of participation in higher education and earned degrees above. Data come from NCES' "Vocational Education Data System" (VEDS) and are provided annually by the states, the District of Columbia, and outlying areas, for programs under the jurisdiction of the state boards of education. Information is provided for both secondary and post-secondary institutions. Enrollment information is gathered by racial/ethnic group but information on the numbers of students who complete programs is not disaggregated this way. Completion information, which would be a better indicator of the degree to which Hispanics profit from the vocational programs which are offered, is not, therefore, available. No information is available on the extent to which students who complete vocational courses are employed in the fields for which they trained, which would be an even better indicator of outcomes.

b. Enrollments in Adult Education Programs

Definition: The proportion of the population of a given group that is participating in adult education programs. Rates of enrollment in adult education programs can be examined over time by comparing data by age group or for successive years.

Discussion: This indicator has the same function as the previous ones. However, since the information is available from the CPS, direct participation rate comparisons among groups can be made. It is also possible, because the data come from the CPS, to describe participants by schooling completed, age, nativity, etc. Adult education courses are too diverse to make completion data feasible.

V. Labor Force Participation and Unemployment

a. Labor Force Participation Rates

Definition: The proportion of the population aged 16 and older who are either employed or seeking work. Employed people include those in the military services. Labor force participation rates should be examined separately for teenagers, aged 16 to 19, and for other age groups which are relevant to the stages at which young people are expected to be seeking employment or beginning to work, i.e., the immediate post-high school and post-college years.

Discussion: Data to calculate labor force participation and employment rates are gathered monthly by the Bureau of the Census in the CPS, and the rates for various groups in the society are published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) as a principal indicator of the health of the economy. However, these rates should be examined in conjunction with the rates of discouraged workers, as explained below. Workers who have ceased looking for work because they believe there is no work available or that they are not qualified for the jobs available, or for other reasons unrelated to willingness and ability to work, are not considered to be in the labor force. The proportion of this group among minorities and among teenagers, especially, is believed to be higher than the proportion in the majority population.

b. Unemployment Rates

Definition: The proportion of the civilian labor force who are not employed. Unemployment rates should be examined for teenagers and for other age groups relevant to the stages at which young people are expected to be seeking employment or beginning work. They should be examined separately for dropouts, for high school graduates, for individuals who have completed two years but fewer than four years of college, and for those who have completed four years or more of college.

Discussion: These data are gathered monthly in the CPS and the rates are published by the BLS, together with the labor force participation rates. Since discouraged workers are not considered to be in the labor force, their proportion is not included in the calculation of the unemployment rates. Thus, rates of discouraged workers must also be examined in conjunction with findings from this indicator.

c. Duration of Unemployment

Definition: The average number of weeks worked during the previous year. This information should be examined for teenagers and for other age groups. It should be examined separately for dropouts, for high school graduates, and for other groups by amount of education.

Discussion: Information on the duration of unemployment, measured by the number of weeks worked in a given year, identifies the extent of "hard-core" unemployment among certain groups. Detailed work histories are obtained each March in the CPS. Comparable information is available for high school sophomores and seniors in HSB. Information on the 1979 work experience of individuals was obtained in the 1980 Census.

d. Discouraged Worker Rates

Definition: The proportion of the population aged 16 and older who are not in the labor force for reasons unrelated to willingness and ability to work. Discouraged worker rates should be examined for teenagers and other relevant age groups and for dropouts, high school graduates, individuals who have completed two but fewer than four years of college, and college graduates.

Discussion: Discouraged workers are those who would like to work and would work if the opportunity were available to them. However, they have ceased to look for work because they believe that jobs are not available for them or because they believe that they are not qualified for the jobs which exist. Because they are not actively seeking work, the Bureau of Labor Statistics does not count them as part of the labor force for the purposes of calculating labor force participation and unemployment rates. It is believed that the proportions of discouraged workers are disproportionately high among minorities and among teenagers in particular. Thus, "true" unemployment for these groups is much higher than that shown in the published statistics.

VI. Work Experience

a. Type of Occupation or Employment

Definition: The proportion of the civilian labor force employed in managerial, professional, technical, sales, administrative support including clerical, service, crafts, and farming occupations and laborers. Data should be examined separately for teenagers and older age groups. It should be examined by sex.

Discussion: This indicator is a gross measure of the extent to which minorities are employed in prestigious or less prestigious occupations than the majority. The classification of occupations is extremely complex. The 1980 Census classification contained about 500 occupational categories. National data have been published for six major categories and 11 subcategories, from which the above classification was taken.

An alternate way of examining the disparities in occupations among groups would be to use the occupational prestige scores which have been developed for this purpose and to average the scores by group. Occupational prestige means the "honor or social esteem generally accorded to an occupation." Prestige scores are available for a large number of occupations based upon their evaluation in terms of relative social standing by representative samples of the public (see **U.S. Commission on Civil Rights** 1978:34-38, 49-101).

b. Occupational Over-Qualification

Definition: The proportion of high school graduates who are employed in occupations which do not require high school graduation. The proportion of college graduates who are employed in occupations which do not require four years of college. Data should be examined for young adults and older age groups or for successive years to determine the extent to which minorities have had and continue to have better qualifications than the jobs in which they find employment require.

Discussion: Data on the typical educational requirements for specific occupations are available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This information can be applied to Census and CPS data to determine the extent to which Hispanic and other minority high school graduates are overqualified for their occupations and Hispanic and other minority college graduates are overqualified for their occupations in comparison with majority high school and college graduates.

c. Earnings for Educational Level

Definition: The median earnings of high school graduates with some earnings. The median earnings of people with earnings who have completed at least four years of college. Data for young adults can be compared with that for older age groups or data from successive years can be compared to determine the extent to which Hispanics and other minorities continue to lag behind in earnings in comparison with the majority with similar educational preparation.

Discussion: Data on earnings and educational level are available from the Census and the CPS. The indicators for employment, occupational overqualification and earnings for educational level are some of the most important in determining the extent to which education pays off for minority groups in our society. If young people who have completed their schooling find that there are no jobs, or the jobs they find do not require the education they have or pay them less than others with the same educational qualifications, they are unlikely to make the effort required to obtain education.

Sample Matrix

Data available to study the high school completion rates indicator (D.II.) are displayed in the sample matrix. The 1980 Census data for the population aged 25 and older have been published for the nation and the states by language background and language spoken by each individual in households in which one or more people speak a language other than English at home. Special tabulations will be needed to examine the rates by ethnic subgroup, nativity, and sex. No data are presently available to study the rates of school completion by English proficiency.

Sample Matrix

	Classification Variables				
Indicator	**Ethnic subgroup**	**Nativity**	**Language background and usage**	**LEP**	**Sex**
High school completion rates, population, aged 25 +	B: 1980 Census	B: 1980 Census	A: 1980 Census	C	B: 1980 Census

A = published data
B = data which are only available in the data bases
C = data which are non-existent at the present time
LEP = data on limited English proficiency

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